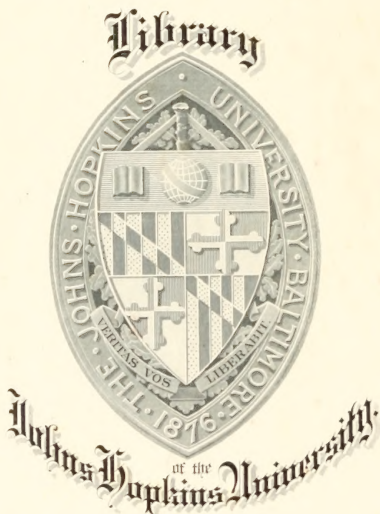


THE EISENHOWER LIBRARY



3 1151 02721 3325

54.316







In the Forms of Plane Geometric Curves.

By Thomas Purcrafft.

Table of Contents.

Introducing statement.	1
Definition of curves through parametric changes.	2
Definition of an singular from singular curve.	3
Definition of a multiple curve from singular curve.	4
Inflections of a non-singular curve derived from a singular curve.	5
The probable maximum number of such inflections, one third the total number.	6
Proof that a curve can be determined with this number of such conditions.	7
Bitangents of a singular curve.	8
Bitangents of an improper curve.	9
Position of $uv+k$ relative to uv in the neighborhood of a double point of uv .	10
Nature of $uv+k$ as to direction, relative to uv .	11
Bitangents of $uv+k$ corresponding to those of uv .	12
Determination of total number of bitangents of uv as derived from the bitangents of $uv+k$.	13
Some properties of an singular curve.	14

E^o recon. Gen of forms of varieties. 12

Stellations, etc. in the figures 12

The number of tangents of a circle 29

and points 29

References to figures illustrating the proof. 30

References to figures illustrating another proof
concerning tangents of the first kind. 35

It is not my desire to
consider the forms of quadratic curves in general
or to give anything like a complete classification
of curves. I have confined myself principally
to the determination of non-singular quintics
fifteen real inflections. These may be considered
as fundamental, inasmuch as they serve to
illustrate the forms of curves having a given
number of inflections. As the method is not being
applicable to curves of all orders, I make a
general statement of it, in so doing I hope
to establish what was given by Dr. Steiner
his immensity or singularity? I must
add that in the practical application
the method I have done little or nothing
more than to put out Dr. Steiner's
application.

If $S=0$ represent a curve of any order,
by proper choice of S we can

we can ... look at the series of lines ...
... from a paper curve to a ...
... change of position ...
... from it to a paper curve of the same ...
... which may be ...
... may or may not be ...
... with the ... will be ...
... according to the ...
... has been small or large. A change ...
the absolute term only gives a curve having no
points in common with the curve from which
it is derived, and furnishes at once the simplest
and most powerful method for determining a
singular form in algebra. A ...
change is sufficient for my purpose, though
... will be ...

Of the ... of a curve increases the
efficiency of construction ...

particularly true of non-singular curves. But, if we have
 given a series of curves of lower orders, we can
 form improper curves of higher orders, and from
 these, it is comparatively easy to find
 a series of curves of a higher order
 which are singular curves which follow the
 same law as the series of the lower order.
 Representing these curves by u and v and the
 improper curve resulting from the intersection
 of u and v , the first singular curve will be
 represented by uv . It will always be assumed
 that u is small enough not necessarily infinite
 to uv , and v is small enough, and uv is small
 in going from uv to $uv-k$. The intersection
 curve will be referred to as double points of
 uv .

Intersection of $uv-k$.

We know that in going from uv to $uv-k$

the loss of a double point involves the gain of two more inflections. In fact if $uv = k$, all the double points of uv are lost, and, it is properly known, no new ones are gained. It is now easy to begin a new series of curves.

Dr. Story has remarked that the number of real inflections of a singular curve is probably one third of the total number. We know that to be true of the cubic and quartic and in some cases that it is true of curves of any order which have no cusp; but if the order is n , it may have as many as $n(n-1)/2$ real inflections.

Suppose the lines of any two branches of order m and n , then it will be true of a curve formed from these which order is $m+n$. Let us take the order of a curve to be

n_1 the order of a curve u , and suppose they intersect
 in the maximum number of points, $n_1 n_2$. The
 number of inflections on uv will be made
 up of the number on u , the number on v , and
 the number arising from the loss of double points
 of uv , i.e. $n_1(n_1-2) + n_2(n_2-2) + 2n_1n_2 = n_1^2 + 2n_1n_2 + n_2^2 - 2(n_1+n_2)$

$= (n_1+n_2)(n_1+n_2-2)$ which is the number required.

Now we know that what has been stated is
 true of curves of orders 2, 3, and 4, hence, by
 by what has just been proved, it is true
 generally. It will be observed that as the points
 of intersection of u and v diminish in sets of two,
 the inflections of the corresponding non-singular
 curves will be diminished in sets of four, so
 that our curves will have, if we form a
 complete system by this method, $n(n-2)$
 $n(n-2)-4$, $n(n-2)-8$ &c. to 3 or 0 inflections
 according as n is odd or even.

Bitangents of n are considered as derived from the tangents of n .

As a line passing through a double point satisfies the analytical conditions for tangency, it may be regarded as a tangent, and to be grouped with the ordinary tangents, in which case it is an analytical tangent. As, in the case of bitangents to a singular curve we have, in addition to the ordinary bitangents, analytical bitangents. The bitangent may be considered as falling under three classes: (a) tangents having two real or imaginary points of contact; (b) lines tangent to the curve through double points tangent elsewhere; (c), lines joining double points two and two. In the case of an improper singular curve uv , class (b) is divided into two; (b₁) lines through the double points tangent to u ; (b₂) lines through the double points tangent to v ; the number in each of these is two less than the class of the curve u or v .

multiplied by the number of double points,
the tangents are drawn, since a tangent at
a double point . . . counts for two and is not
regarded as a bitangent.

Since $uv.k$ is derived from uv , the
bitangents of $uv.k$ may be regarded as derived
from those of uv . Each ordinary bitangent of uv
is . . .
To determine the number due to the analytical
bitangents we must investigate the nature of
 $uv.k$ in the neighborhood of the double point
of uv . Let D be a double point of uv . For any
particular value of k the product
sign, namely, the sign of k , will
change sign . . .
at all. A simultaneous change of sign can take place
only when we pass from an angle AOE to its
opposite angle BOE . It follows, therefore, that if a
part of the curve $uv.k$ is in the angle AOE ,



there will be a corresponding part in the angle $\angle DBE$.
If the sign of k be changed then parts of the
are in the opposite angles $\angle ADE$ and $\angle CDB$.

To investigate the nature of $uv=k$ as to the
direction of its points relative to uv , let x and y
be coordinates of any point on uv and ϵ_1 and ϵ_2
the increments of x and y which will bring us
from a point on uv to a point on $uv=k$. Substitute
these in $uv=k$, and you get $y(u+\epsilon_1) = k$. Then
the nature of k will be ascertained. The result of
Lagrange's theorem is

$$\left(u + \epsilon_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} + \dots\right)(v + \epsilon_1 \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} + \epsilon_1 \epsilon_2 \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x \partial y} + \dots) = k$$

If the point x, y is on only one of the curves u, v ,
say u then $\epsilon_2 = 0$ and, leaving out higher powers
of ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 then the result is

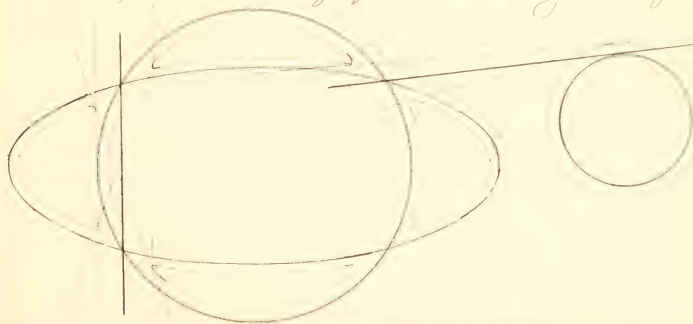
$$(u + \epsilon_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x})(v + \epsilon_1 \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}) = k$$

the equation of a line parallel to the tangent
at x, y to u . The line gives the direction
of an element of the curve $uv=k$. So we get

a double point on uv then $u=0$ and $v=0$. Omitting powers of x , and x_2 higher than second, we have

$$(x_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + x_2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}) (x_1 \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + x_2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}) = k,$$

which shows that in the neighborhood of a double point of uv with approximate tangents l_1 and l_2 the curve uv is tangent to the line l_1 and l_2 at the point in question. The line l_1 is the first of the tangents, and generally speaking that a double point gives rise to two real inflections. With what has been proved, it will now serve to show that each analytical bitangent of the class (b) is the source of two, and each of class (c), the source of four real bitangents.



It will be observed that in some cases the bound
 of classes (b) and (c)
 tangents must be regarded as imaginary, such a
 case is indicated by the dotted curves in the figures.

We can now determine the total number
 of tangents to u and v .

Let m_1 denote the class of u ,

m_2 " " " "

m_3 " " " "

n " order " uv

$\}$ " number of tangents

of uv , taken as the maximum.

Let τ denote the number of tangents of u and v .

τ_1 " " " " " " uv

τ_2 " " " " tangents of $uv = k$

moving from tangents down to a pair intersecting u and v .

τ_3 , the number of tangents of u and v moving
 from tangents down to a pair intersecting u and v .

τ_4 , the number of tangents moving from tangents
 joining the intersections of u and v two and u .

22-

and $n(n-1) = 25$ and the number of integers k

$$\frac{1}{2} (m^3 - 1)m + 8m).$$

$$7. \quad \left| \frac{n(n-1)^2}{4} - 5n(n-1) + 8n \right| = \dots$$

$$\tau_2 - \tau_3 = \mathcal{O}(m_{-2}) \frac{n^2}{4} = \frac{n^2}{2} \left[\frac{n-2}{2} - 2 \right] = \dots$$

$$\tau_y = H \tau_y(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\frac{n}{2} (n^3 - 2n^2 - 9n + 15)$$

$$\frac{n(n-2)}{2}(n-9)$$

It is all very like a garden of
and of the ²1. The ²1. ²1.

$$\frac{n^2-1}{4}, \text{ an} = n(n-1) - \frac{n^2-1}{2} = \frac{(n-1)^2}{2}$$

$$\gamma_i = \frac{1}{\Gamma} \left(1 - \frac{\beta}{\Gamma} \right) = \frac{1}{\Gamma} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\Gamma} \right)$$

$$f_1 = \left[\frac{2\pi \cdot 10^6 \cdot 0.001}{4} - \frac{2\pi \cdot 10^6}{4} \right] \frac{2\pi \cdot 10^6}{4} \quad f_2 = \left(\frac{2\pi \cdot 10^6}{4} - 2\pi \cdot 10^6 \right) \frac{2\pi \cdot 10^6}{4} = -\pi \cdot 10^6$$

$$\gamma_2 = \left(\frac{2}{4} - 2 \right) = -\frac{3}{2}$$

The investigation can be made general with the same con-

$$\hat{T}_7 = \frac{n^2}{4} \left(\frac{\frac{n^2}{4} - 1}{1 \cdot 2} \right)_4 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n^2}{4} - \frac{3}{2} n^2 + \frac{5}{4} \right)$$

$$T = T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + T_7 = \frac{1}{2} (n^4 - 2n^3 - 9n^2 + 18n)$$

$$= \frac{n}{2} (n-2)(n^2-9)$$

which, as before, is the total number of bitangents to a curve of the n^{th} order.

Some properties of non-singular curves will follow from a consideration of singularities - general.

Leuthen has remarked (Math. Annalen Vol 7 p 410) that the branches that make up a plane curve may be of two kinds, odd or even. The parity of an odd branch is, that it intersects any other odd branch in an odd number of points, the even branch intersects any other branch in an even number of points. Leuthen has shown that an odd branch has always an odd number of real inflections, and an even branch an even number, and, if an odd branch is non-singular it must have at least three real inflections, the even branch

at least one other point, besides the point chosen.
There cannot be more than two even branches
on either side of the line, and the whole
branch must be an oval; otherwise we could
draw a straight line intersecting the quartic in
at least seven points.

Leithen divides bitangents into two kinds;
his bitangents of the first kind are those whose
contacts are on the same branch, the contacts
being at some point, bitangent of the second
kind are those whose contacts are on different
branches. In the case of quartics the contacts
of a bitangent of the first kind cannot be
separated by its intersection with the other
bitangents. This is true of quartics if the bitan-
gent of the first kind has its contacts on
an even branch. The contrary being the
case if the contacts are on an odd branch.
It may be seen in the following figure that

tangent elsewhere. It is easily seen that the
 number of bitangents of the first kind to an
 even branch is one half of the number of its
 self-intersections. But the even branches have 0, 2, 4, 6,
 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32, 34, 36, 38, 40, 42, 44, 46, 48, 50, 52, 54, 56, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66, 68, 70, 72, 74, 76, 78, 80, 82, 84, 86, 88, 90, 92, 94, 96, 98, 100 bitangents of the second kind
 to even branches, since every combination of even
 branches in sets of two have four bitangents
 of the second kind. The other bitangents of the
 second kind are those whose contact is
 one on the odd branch and one on an
 even branch. The total number of bitangents is one hundred.

Enumeration of forms.

Since all non-singular curves have an
 odd number of self-intersections it is sufficient to mention in
 each case the characters of the even branches.
 I have found it convenient to ~~arrange~~
 group the curves, first, according to the total
 number of self-intersections and then according to the

To the number of collections in the same country.
I give figures only for numbers having fifteen
and more collections. The following are the names of the
same countries.

Number of collections in the same country.

1. *Quadrifolium* and *unifolium* and *figs* 1, 2, 3.
2. *Unifolium* and *figs* 1, 2, 3.

For collections in the same country.

3. *Quadrifolium* and a *unifolium* *figs* 4, 5.
4. *Quadrifolium* and *unifolium* and *figs* 6, 7.
5. *Unifolium* and a *bifolium* *figs* 8, 9.
6. *Unifolium* and *bifolium* and *figs* 10, 11.
7. *Unifolium* and *figs* 12, 13.
8. *Unifolium* and *figs* 14, 15, 16, 17.
9. A *bifolium*, *three unifolia* and an oval. *Figs* 18, 19.
10. Two *bifolia*, a *unifolium* and two ovals. *Figs* 20.
11. Two *unifolia* *Figs* 21, 22, 23.

Eight *bifolia* in the same country.

12. A *quadrifolium* and an oval *Figs* 24, 25.

13. A quadrifolium and two ovals Fig. 22.
14. A trifolium and a unifolium. Figs. 23, 24.
15. A trifolium, a unifolium and an oval. Figs. 25, 26.
16. Two bifolia. Fig. 27
17. Two bifolia and an oval Fig. 28
18. Two bifolia and two ovals Figs. 29, 30
19. A bifolium and two ovals Figs. 31, 32, 33, 34, 35.
20. Four unifolia. Figs. 36, 37, 38.
21. A quadrifolium and three ovals.
22. A bifolium two unifolia and an oval.

The figures for 21 and 22 are not given; 21 results from a combination of a bipartite redundant hyperbola with a hyperbola; 22 from a cubic with an ellipse. The form of 22 will be readily seen from Figs. 33, 34, 35.

Six inflections on the even branches

23. A trifolium and internal oval. Fig. not drawn. Figs. 39, 40 and 41 illustrate this case.
24. A bifolium Fig. 170

- 28. A bifolium and an oval. Figs. 41
- 29. A bifolium and two ovals. Figs. 42, 43
- 30. A bifolium and three ovals. Figs. 44
- 31. A bifolium and a semicircle. Figs. 45
- 32. A bifolium or semicircle and an oval. Figs. 46, 47, 48
- 33. Two semicircles. Figs. 49, 50, 51
- 34. Three semicircles and an oval. Figs. 52

From applications of the same principles.

- 35. A bifolium. Figs. 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58
- 36. A bifolium and an oval. Figs. 10, 12, 42.
- 37. Two semicircles. Figs. 48
- 38. A bifolium and three ovals
- 39. Two semicircles and two ovals.

35 and 36 may be obtained by combining a bipartite redundant hyperbola with an ellipse.

See also — an new branch

- 37. A semicircle and an oval. Figs. 48, 49
 - 38. A bifolium and three ovals. Figs. 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58
- by changing, the position of the ellipse ^{relative} to the ^{center} of the circle.

is the further no. 30 cases 21, 30, 38.

Even numbers without infection.

39. 4 single oval. No 1, 2, 3, 4.

40. Two oval. No 1, 13, 22, 33, 34, 35, 40.

41. Three oval. No 37, 38, 41.

42. Same as 38 can be obtained as 38 by changing the meaning of the figures.

43. Same branches.

44. No. 27, 48.

The figures in quotes with figure in parentheses will describe the forms that will result from combination of a case and some calling in four lines or four points. The following are some of the most evident forms.

Quintics with eleven infections.

Eight infections on the even branches

1. 4 quadrilaterals and an intersect oval.
2. 4 quadrilaterals and an oval.
3. Two ovals and an oval.

4. *Storer multifolia*
5. *A. trifolium* and a *unifolium*.
6. *A. trifolium*, a *unifolium* and an oval.
 Storer trifolium on the even branches.
7. *A. trifolium*.
8. *A. trifolium* and an oval.
9. *A. trifolium* and two ovals.
10. *A. trifolium* and three ovals.
11. *A. trifolium* and a *unifolium*.
12. *A. trifolium* - *unifolium* and an oval.
13. *A. trifolium* - *unifolium* and two ovals.
14. *A. trifolium*.
15. *Storer multifolia* and an oval.

Storer trifolium on the even branches.

16. *A. trifolium* and an internal oval.
17. *A. trifolium* and an oval.
18. *A. trifolium*
19. *A. trifolium*

Two inflorescences on an even branch.

20. A bifolium with an odd.

No inflorescences on even branches.

21. An odd.

22. Two odds.

23. Two odds.

24. A single odd branch.

Quintessence with seven inflorescences.

Seven inflorescences on even branches.

1. A bifolium with internal odd.

2. A bifolium with an odd.

3. A bifolium.

4. Two bifolia.

Five inflorescences on an even branch.

5. A bifolium with internal odd.

6. A bifolium with an odd.

7. A bifolium.

8. A bifolium on an even branch.

9. Two ovals.

10 No even branches.

Quintics with three inflections

1 One oval and an internal oval.

2 Two ovals.

3 One oval.

The total number of forms enumerated is

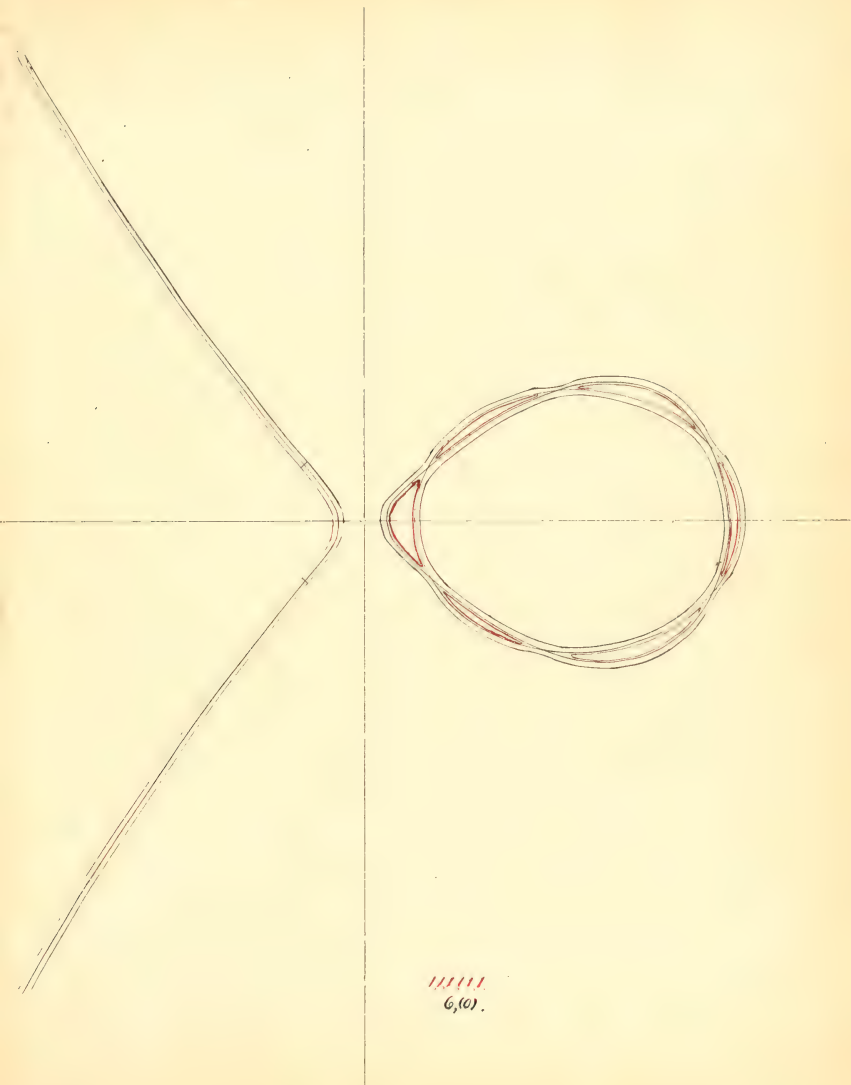
In order to show readily the characters of the even branches in each figure, I use the following notation. An oval is represented by 0; a unifolium by 1; a bifolium by 2, &c. If the oval is inside of another even branch it is indicated by enclosing the 0 in parenthesis thus (0). A combination of digits will show at once the nature of the even branches in question, these combinations are written out in the accompanying table.

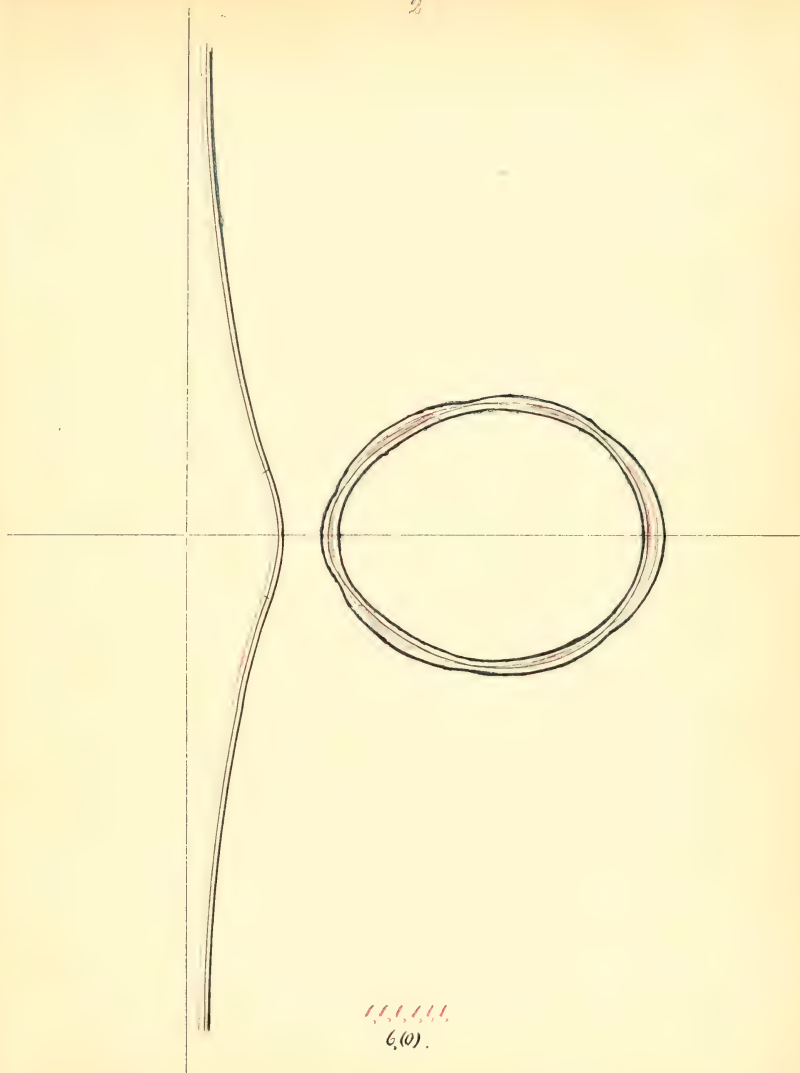
position is in red - a blue mass. The nature
of the light emitted in any case will
appear in reflection. It will be seen that
old bones are composed of no three or
five separate parts having various numbers
of nuclei. The lines in the black mass
indicate the position of the reflection of the
color. These were determined as the intensity
of the color with which. The position of
the reflection of the quanta can be obtained
as a general rule by assuming that, in
the neighborhood of a reflection of the color
and mass, there is a reflection in one
angle. Hence there are x points found and
each other and also in the opposite angle,
one in an angle formed by x corners and
a concave part, and one in the opposite
angle.

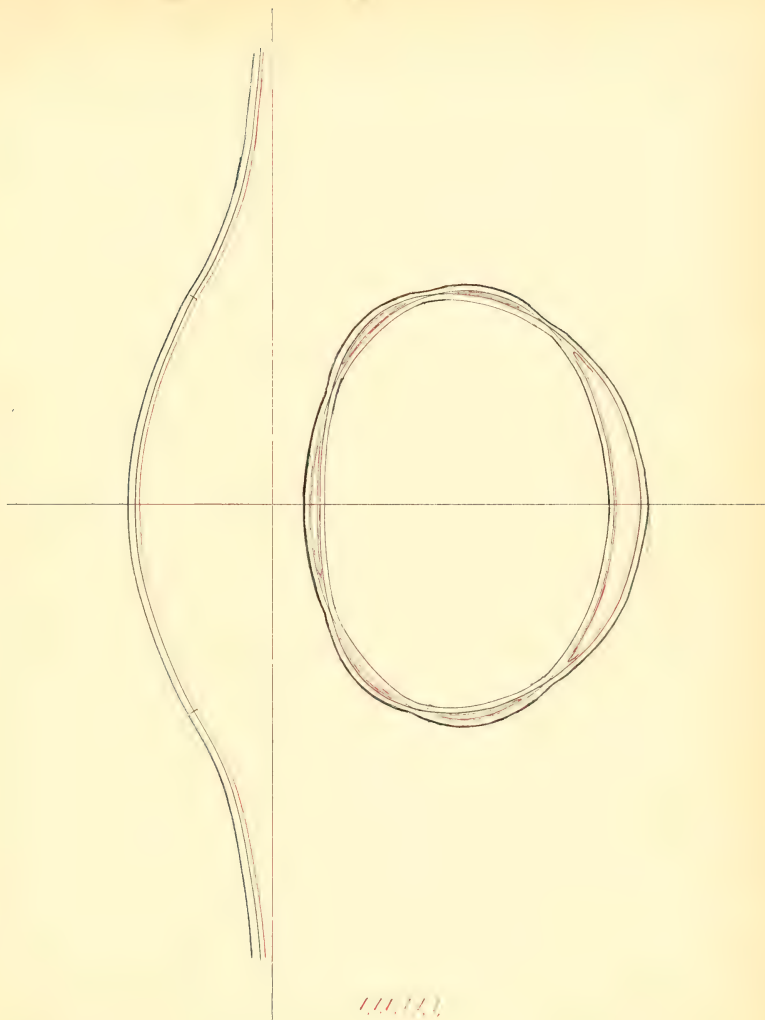
With regard to the ^{real} tangency. I am under

to state a general law as to their number.
In the case of the quartic the number of bi-
tangents of the first kind is constant but
with the quintic I believe it is not so. ^{2,2}
has twelve; 0, of Fig 7 has fifteen. A number of the
curves have been seen that only eight and
others no more than six seem to be evident.
Of course these statements take no account of
possible tangents with imaginary contacts but
these in the case of a quintic with fifteen
real tangents I think to not be so. Fig 9
is a curve which illustrates the loss of two tangents
of the first kind. 2,1,1 of Figs. 9 and 10 differ as
to the position of the inflectional tangent. The inflectional
of 10 is cut by the axis of y . ^{is} an inflectional
tangent to the cubic; with 9 it is not so. An inflectional
tangent, tangent elsewhere. This inflectional tangent
is not a tangent to the cubic.

21
branch of Fig. 9. Passing through the curve with
an inflectional bitangent we come to the case
of Fig. 10 which has two bitangents of the first
kind less than Fig. 9. The same is true of
Figs 12 and 13. The statement on
page 14, that the contacts of a bitangent of the
first kind to an odd branch may be separated
by the intersections of the bitangent with two
others, is illustrated by 00, of Fig. 6 2, of Fig. 8, 30, of
Fig. 43, 0, of Fig. 44.

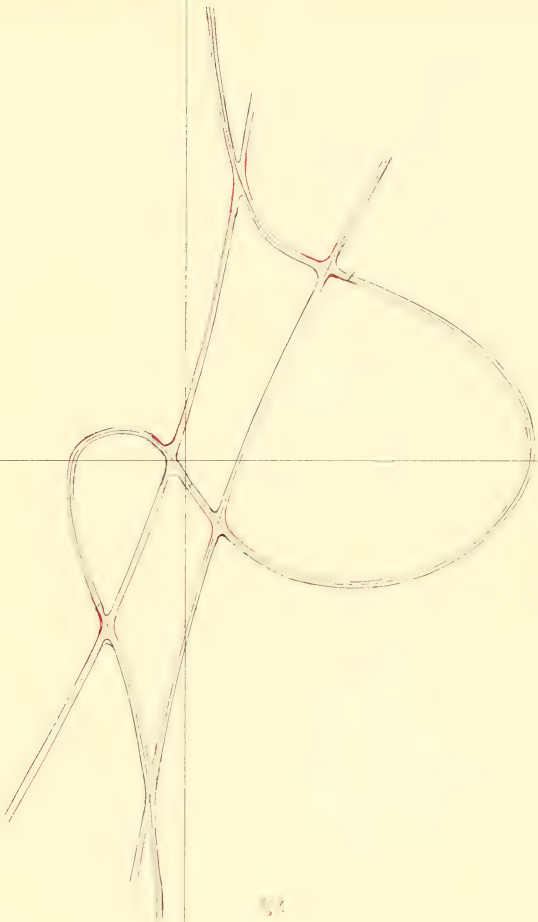


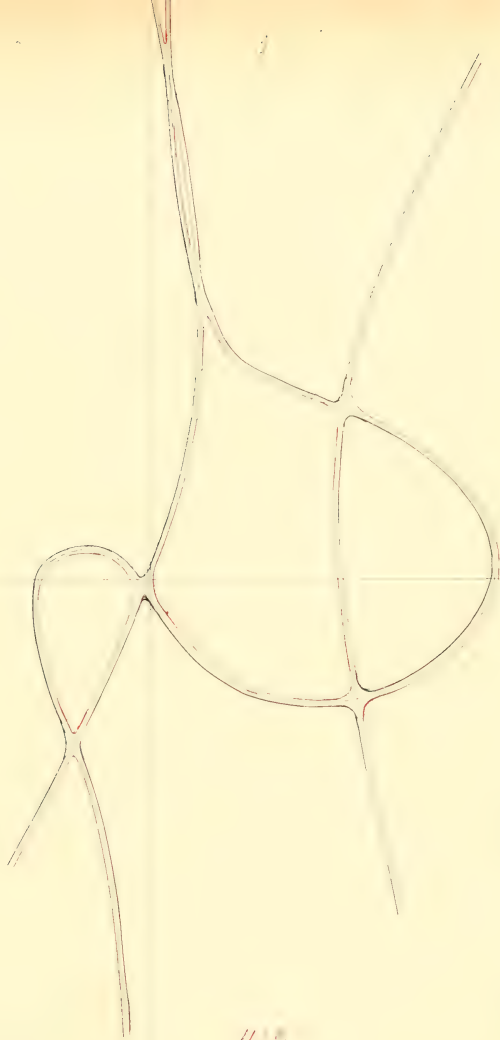




6, (0).

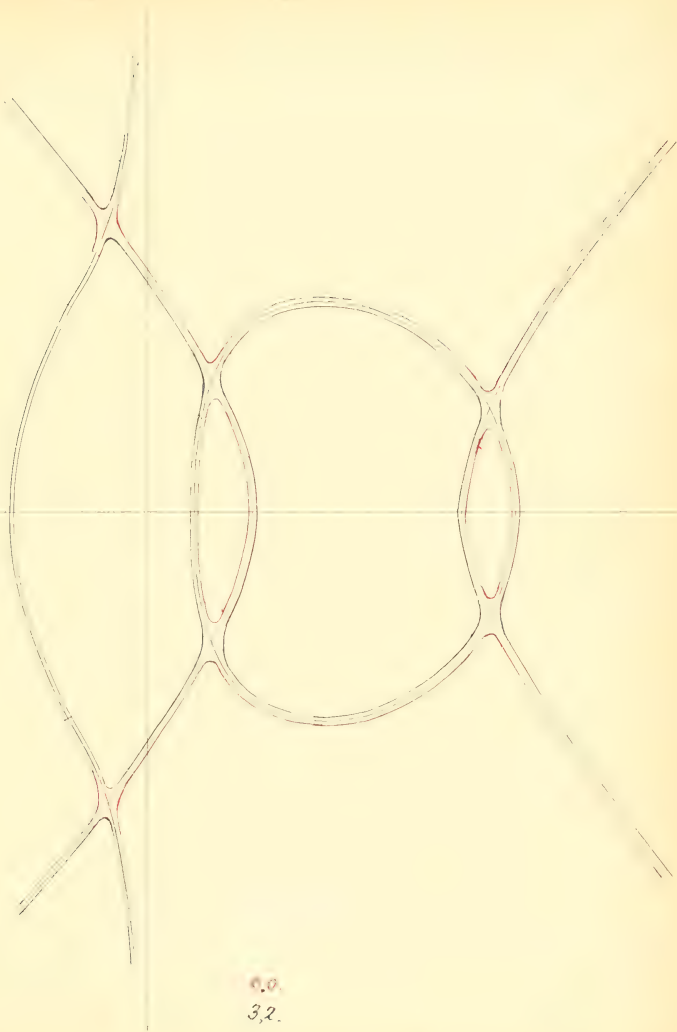






11, 12, 13

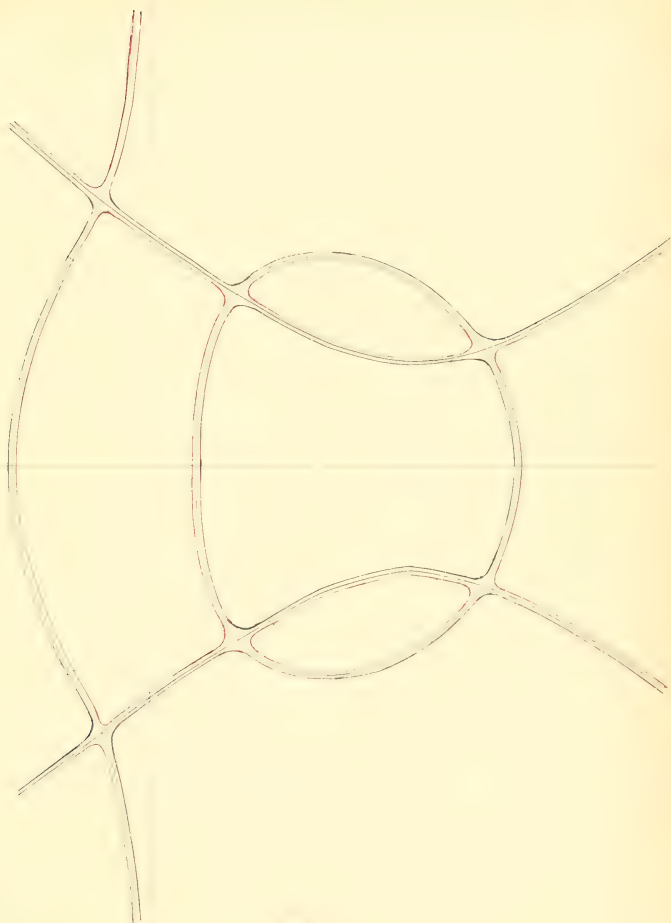
0.



0.0.
3.2.

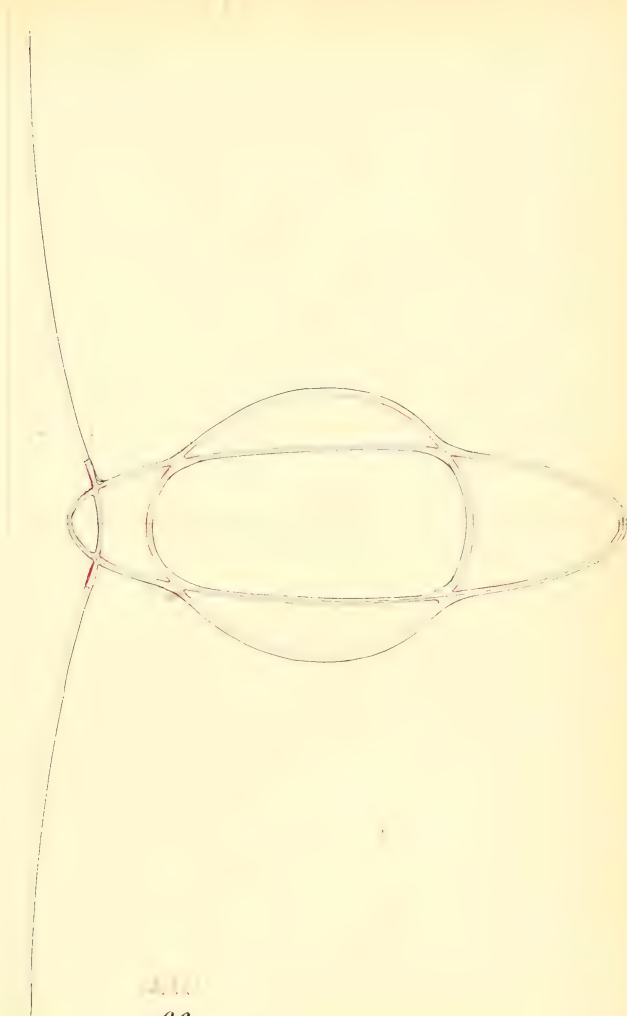


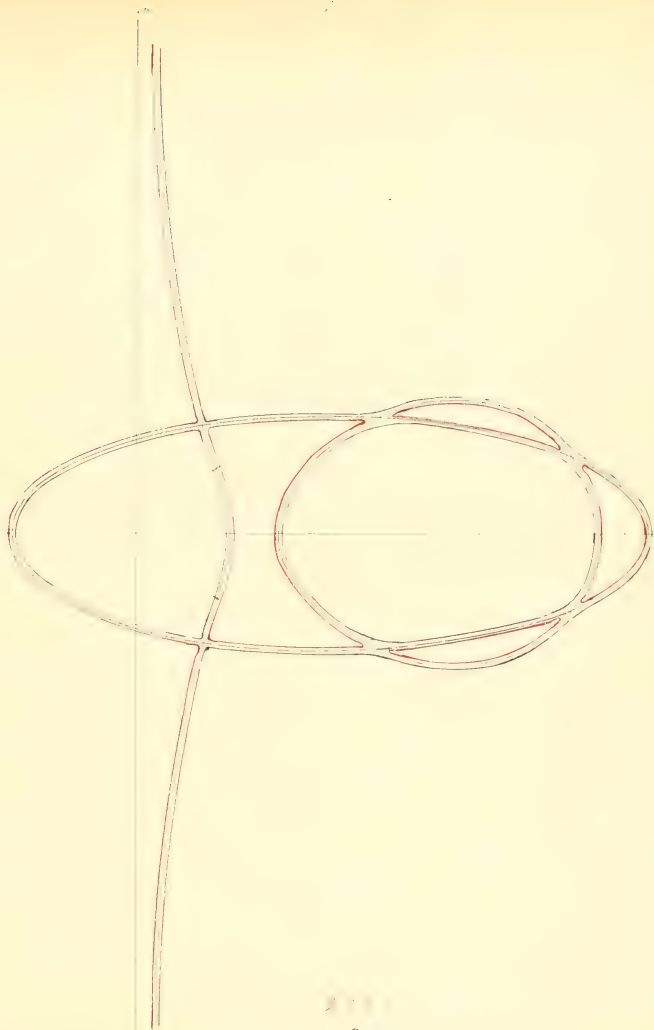
U.
3,2,0



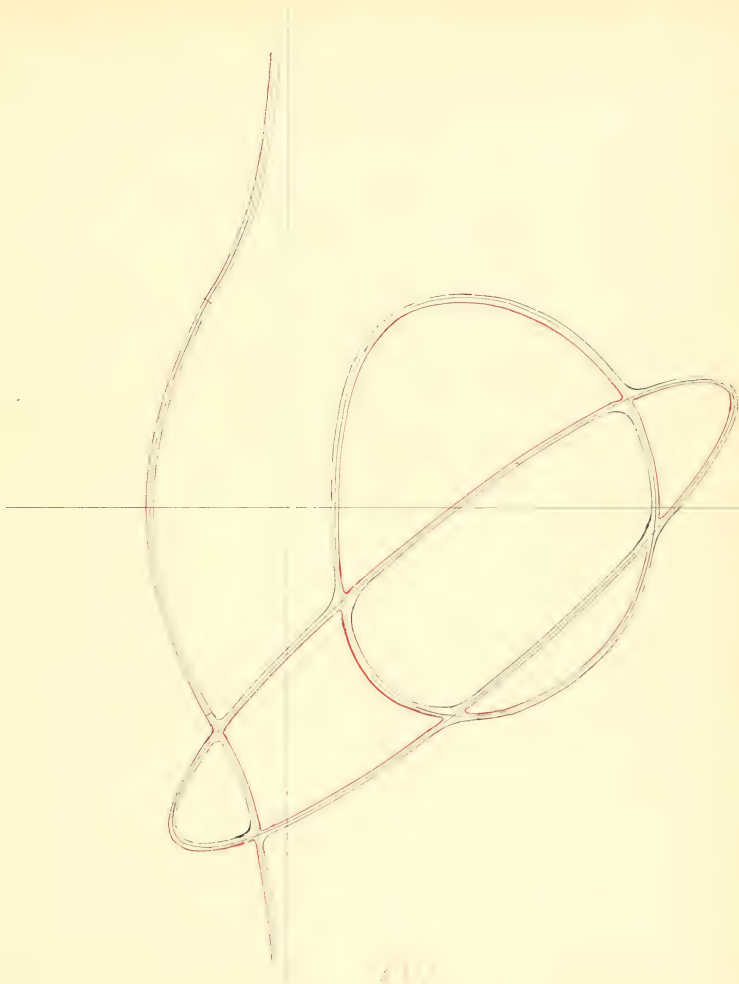
10, 10, 10

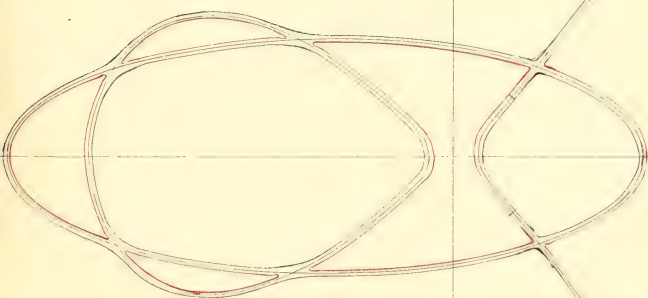
2.



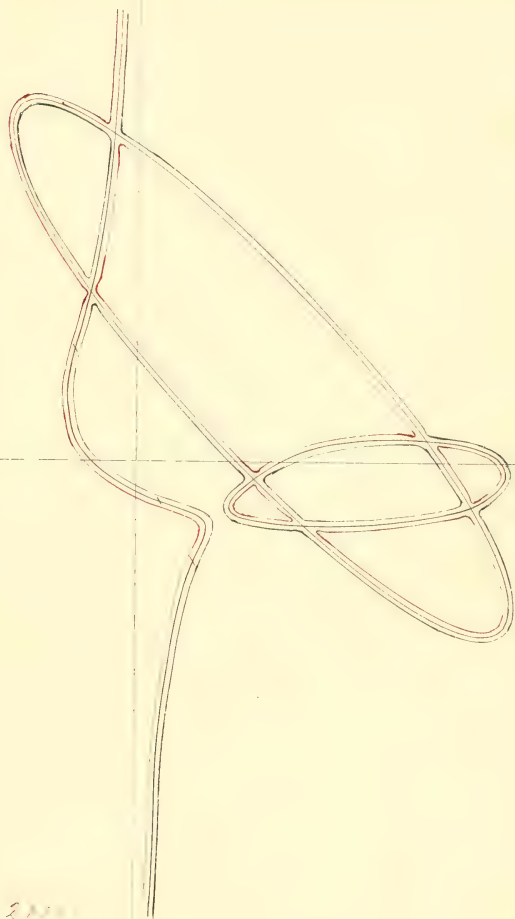


2,0.

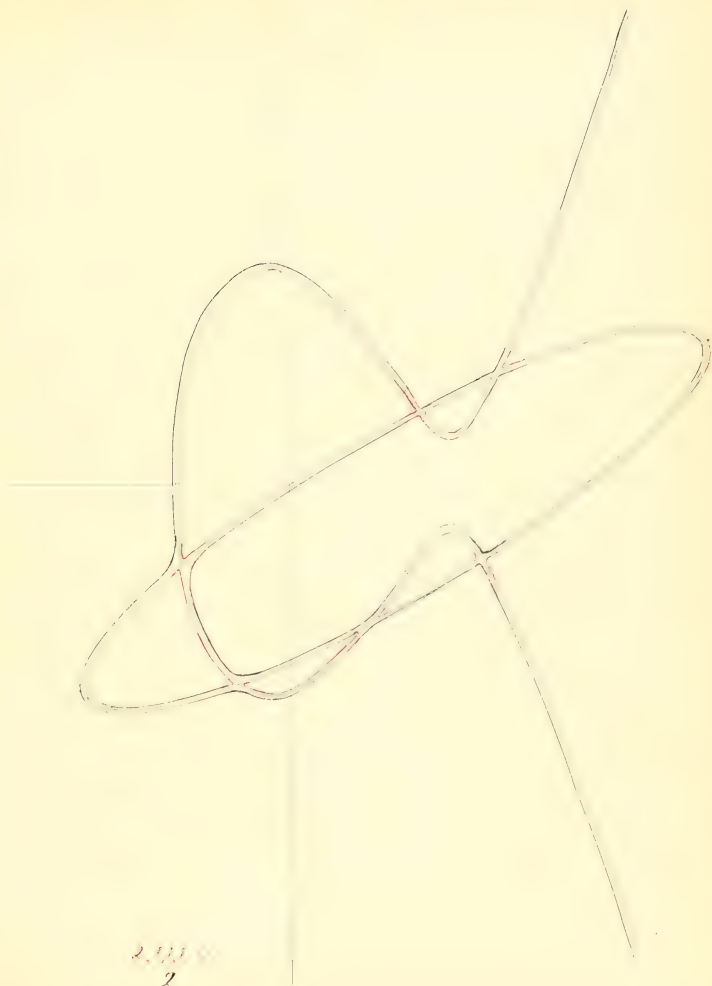




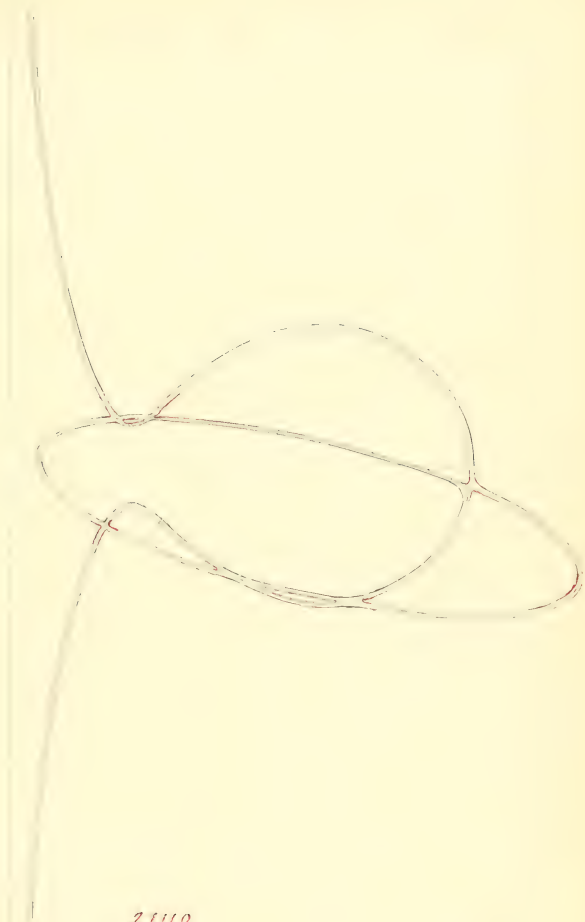
20



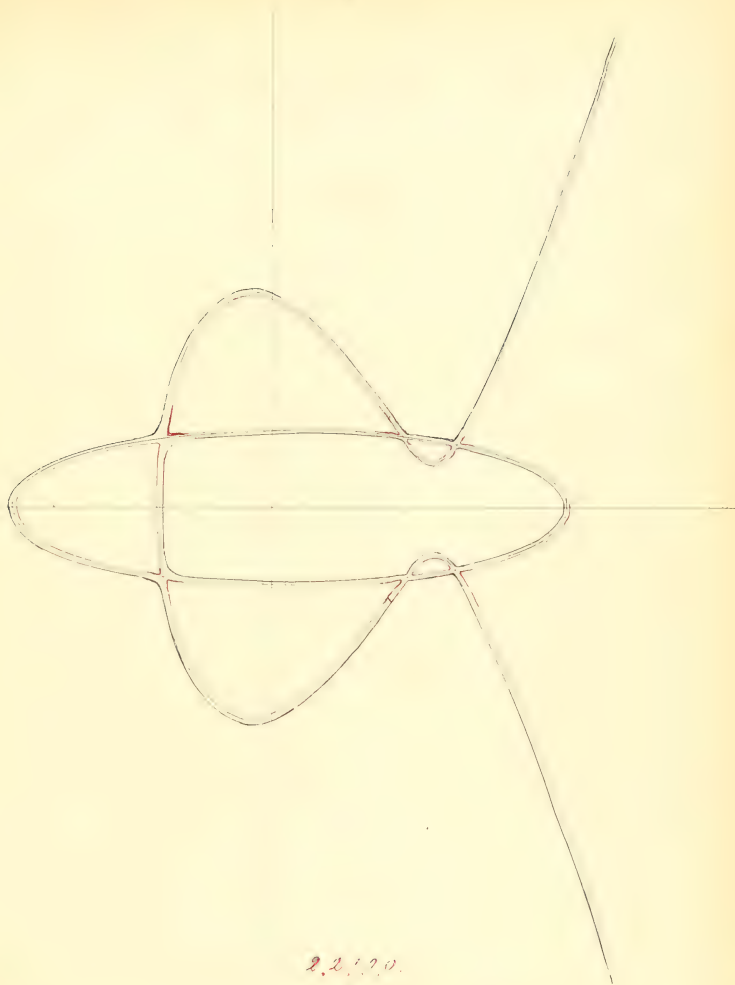
2. 1. 1. 1.
0. 0.

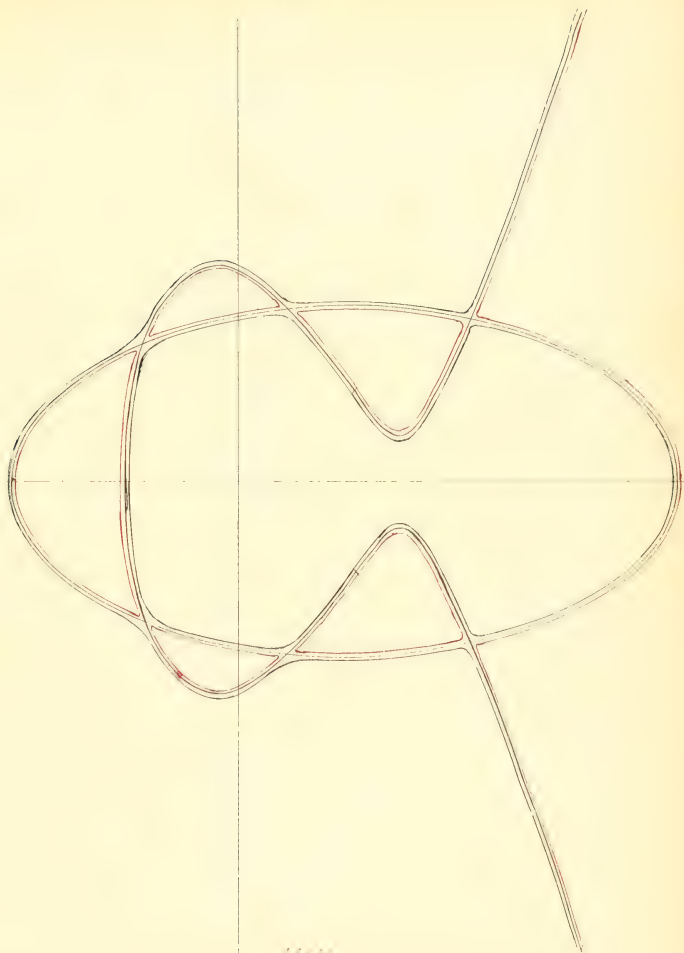


2.11.10
2

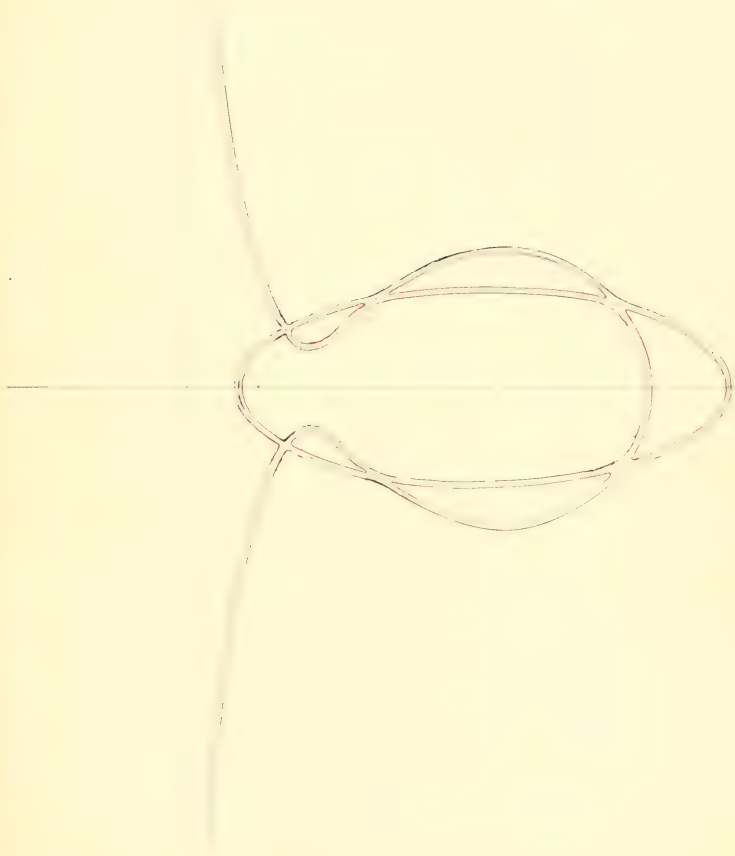


2,11,0.
2



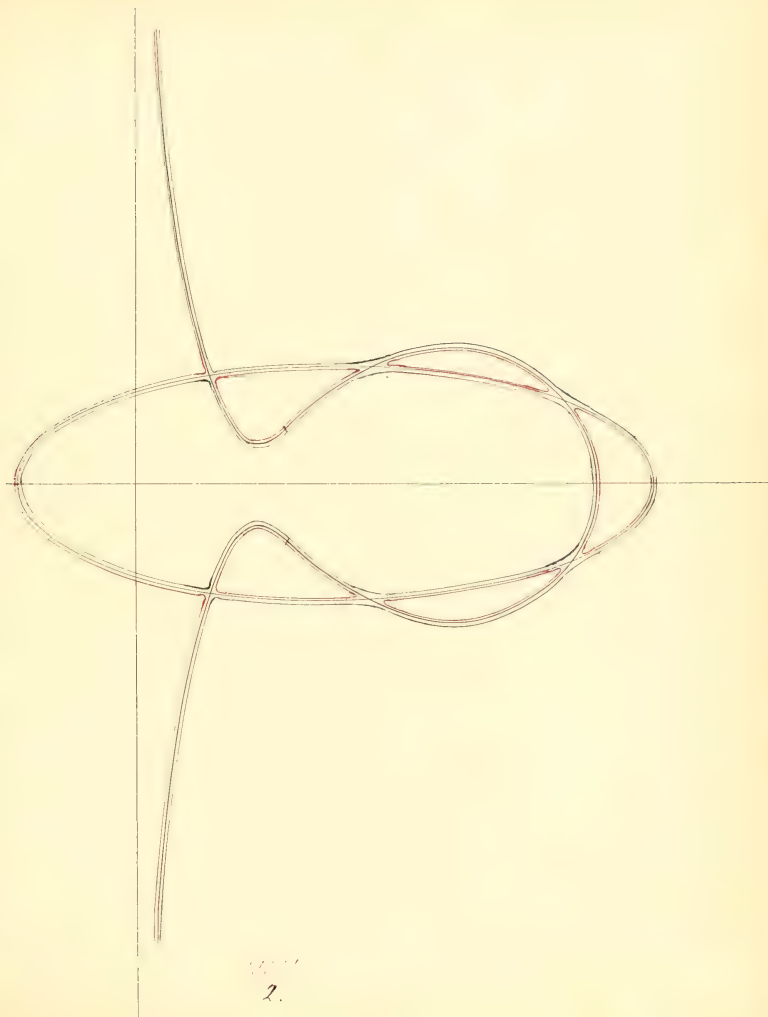


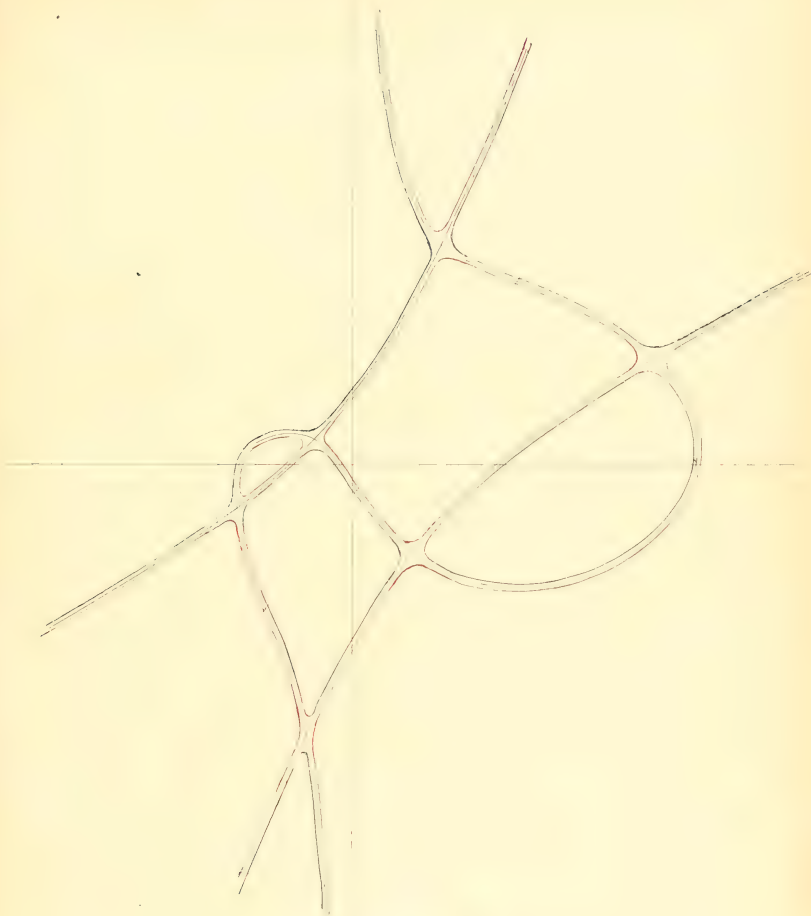
2.



11111

2.

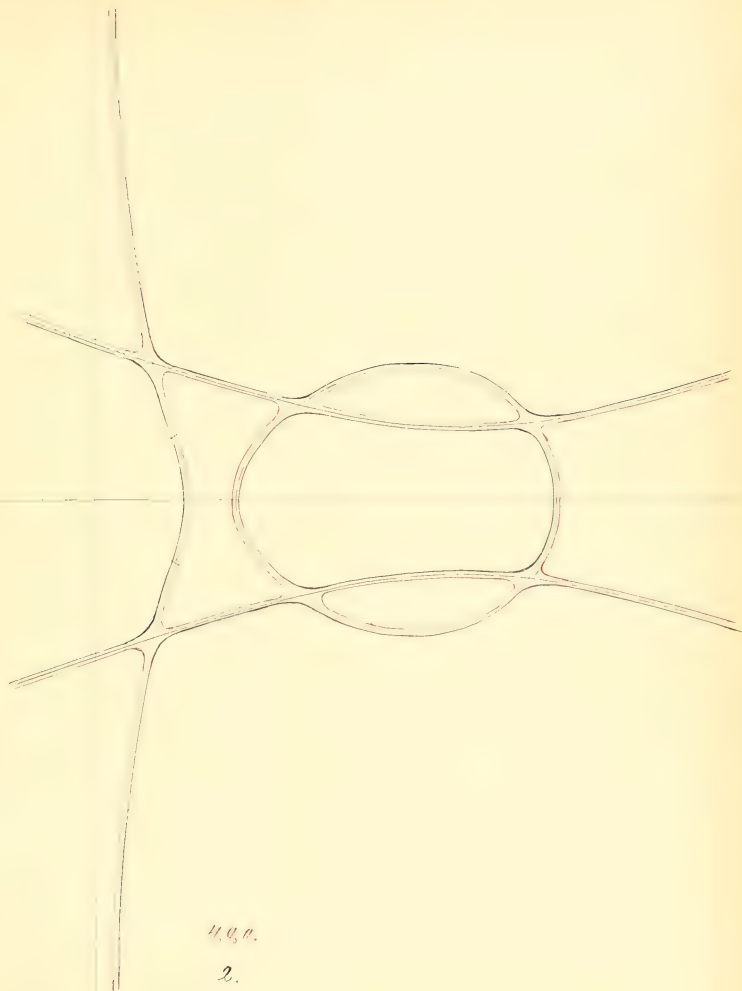


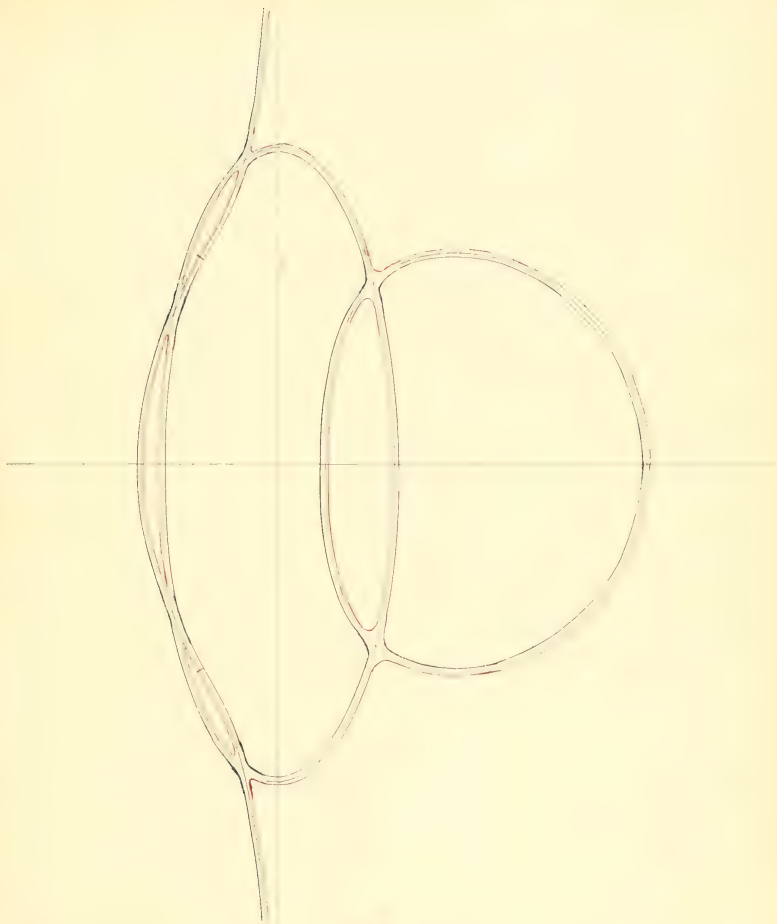


4, 0.

4, 0.

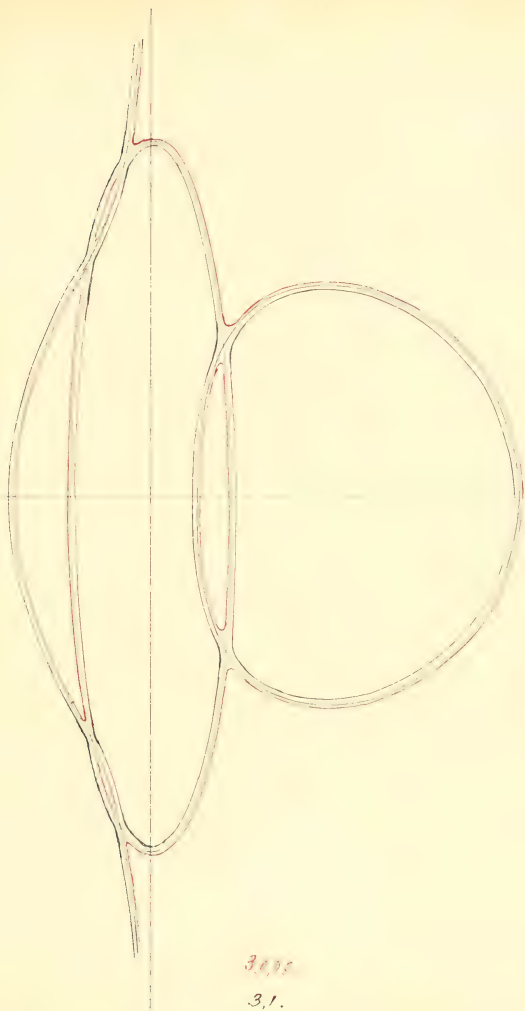






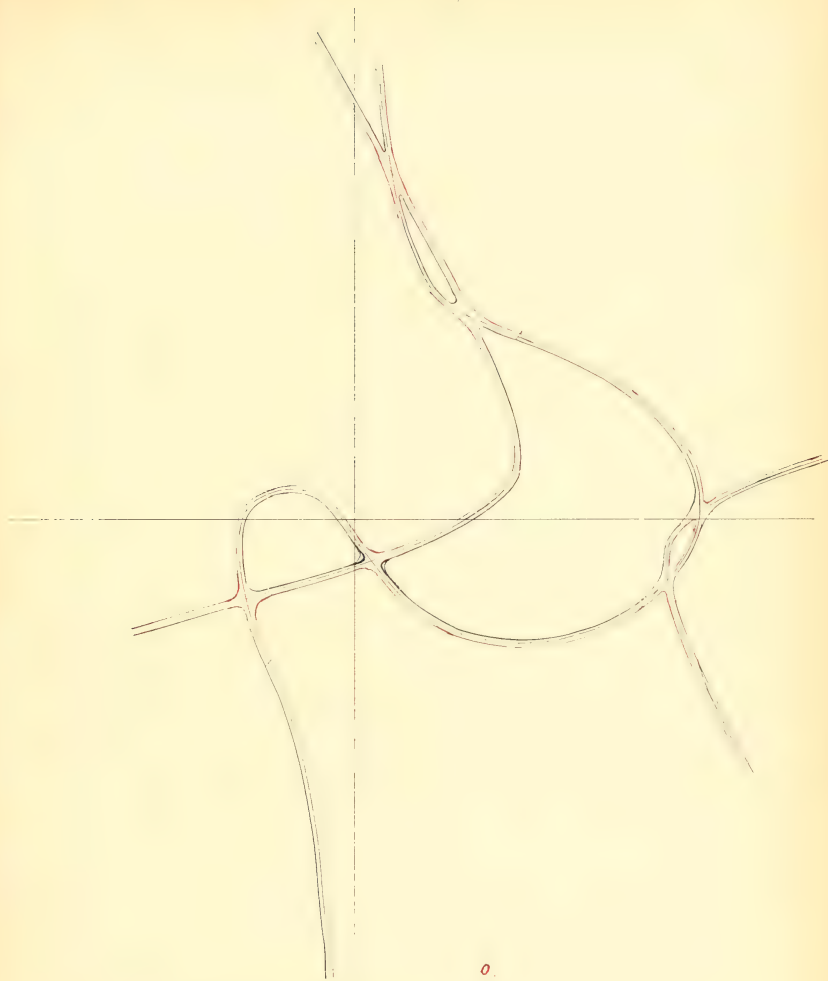
1110.

31.



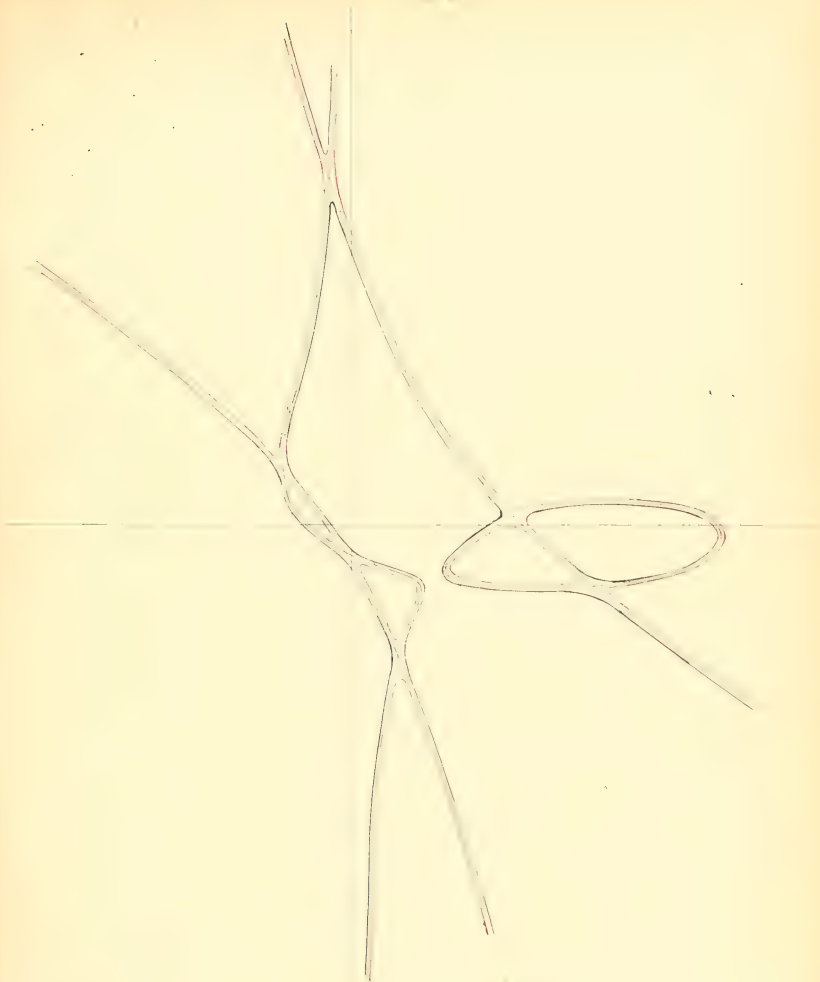
3,1,5

3,1.



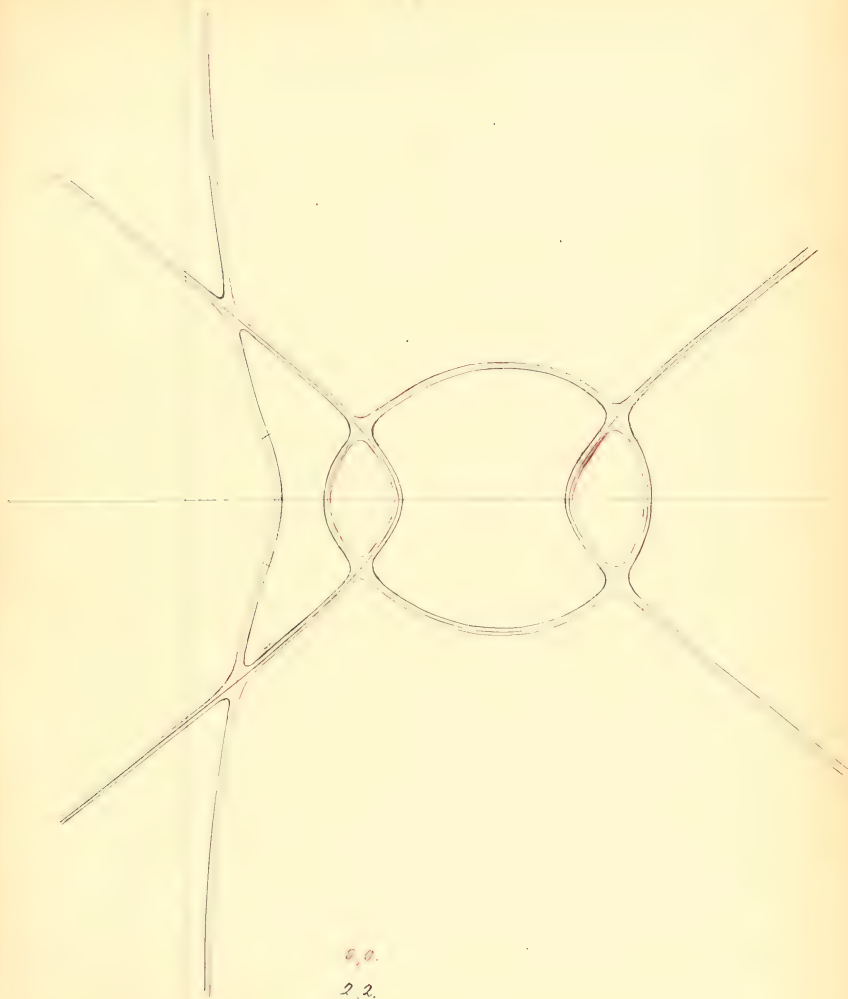
0.
3, 0.

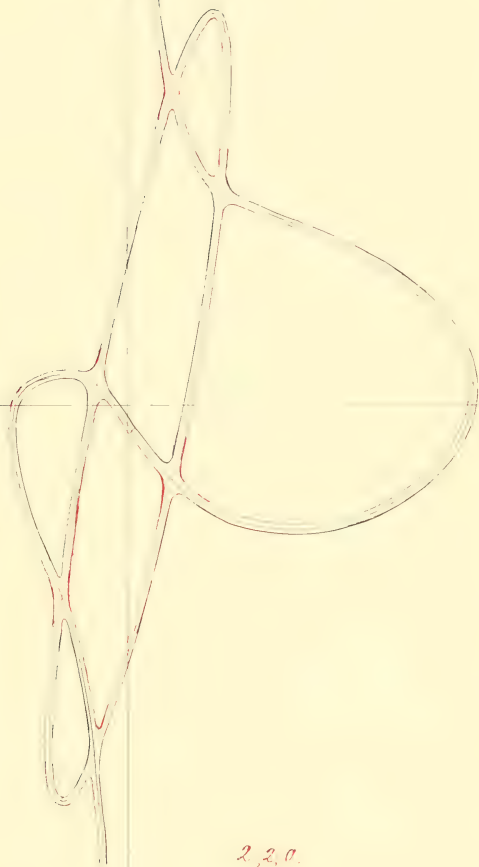




3, 0.

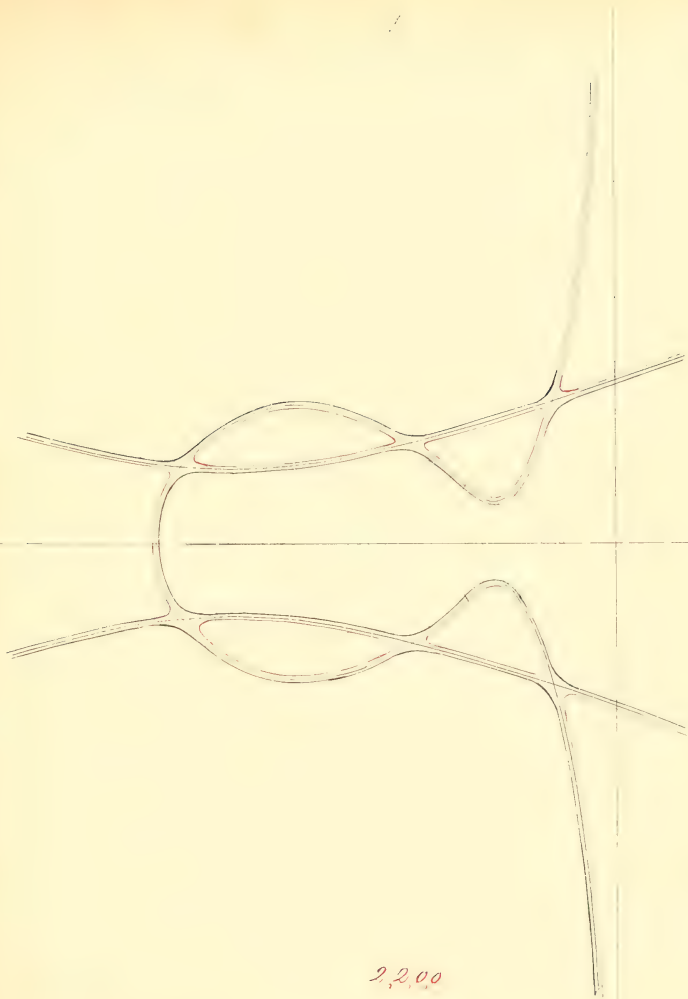
0.

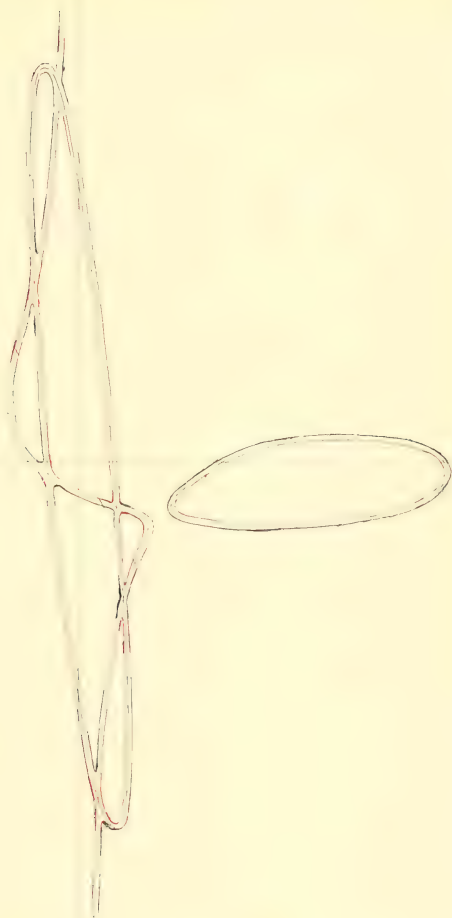




2,2,0.

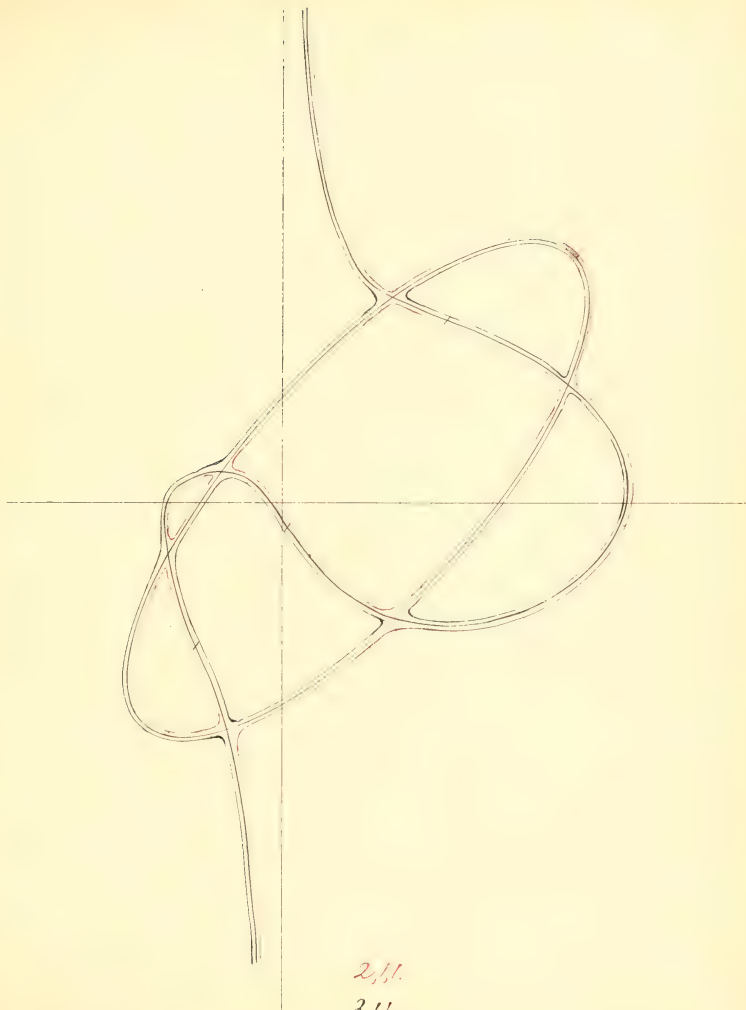
2,2,0.



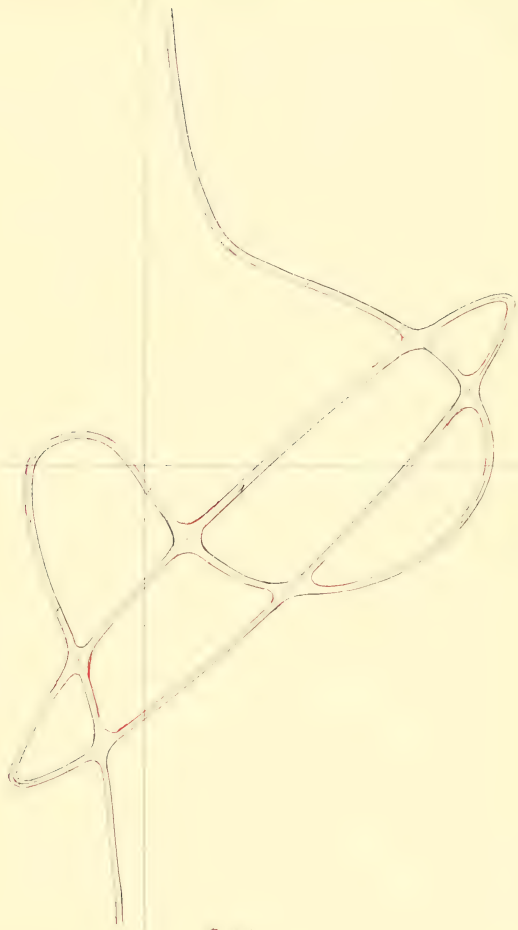


2,2,0,0.

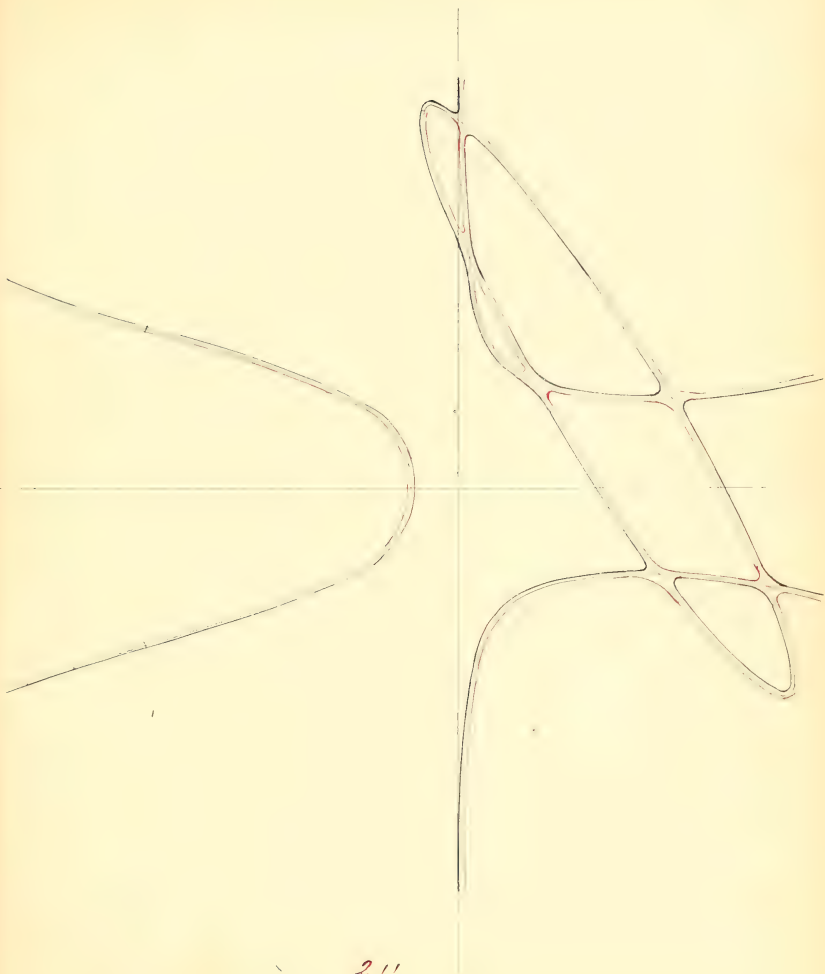
2,2,0,0.



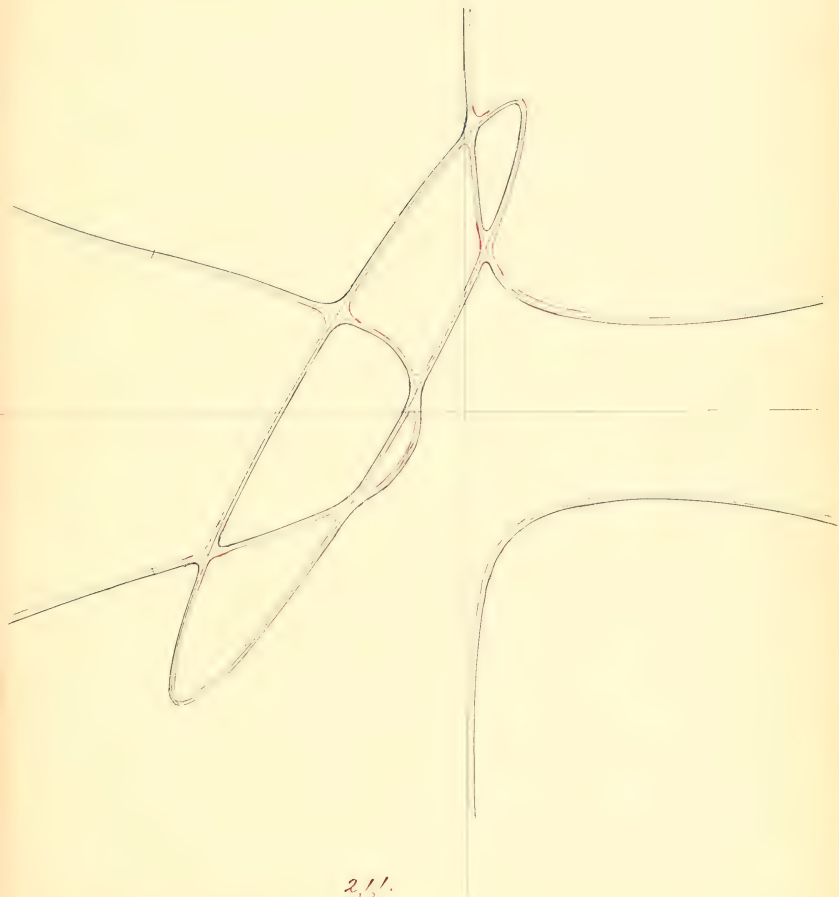
$2, 1/1.$
 $2, 1/1.$



2,11.
3,00.

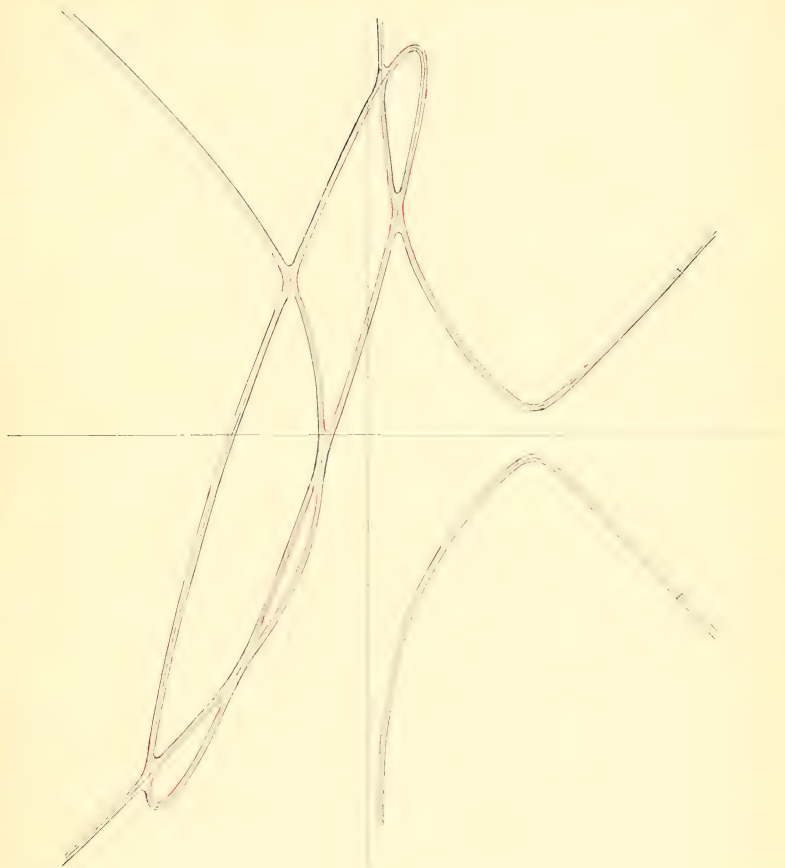


2,11.
0,0.

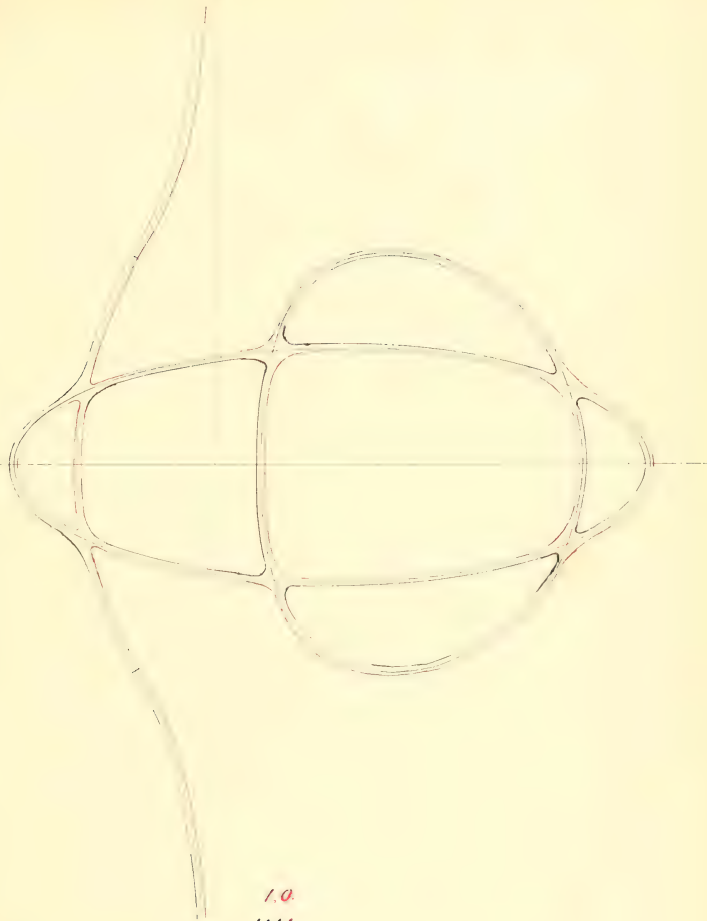


2,1/.

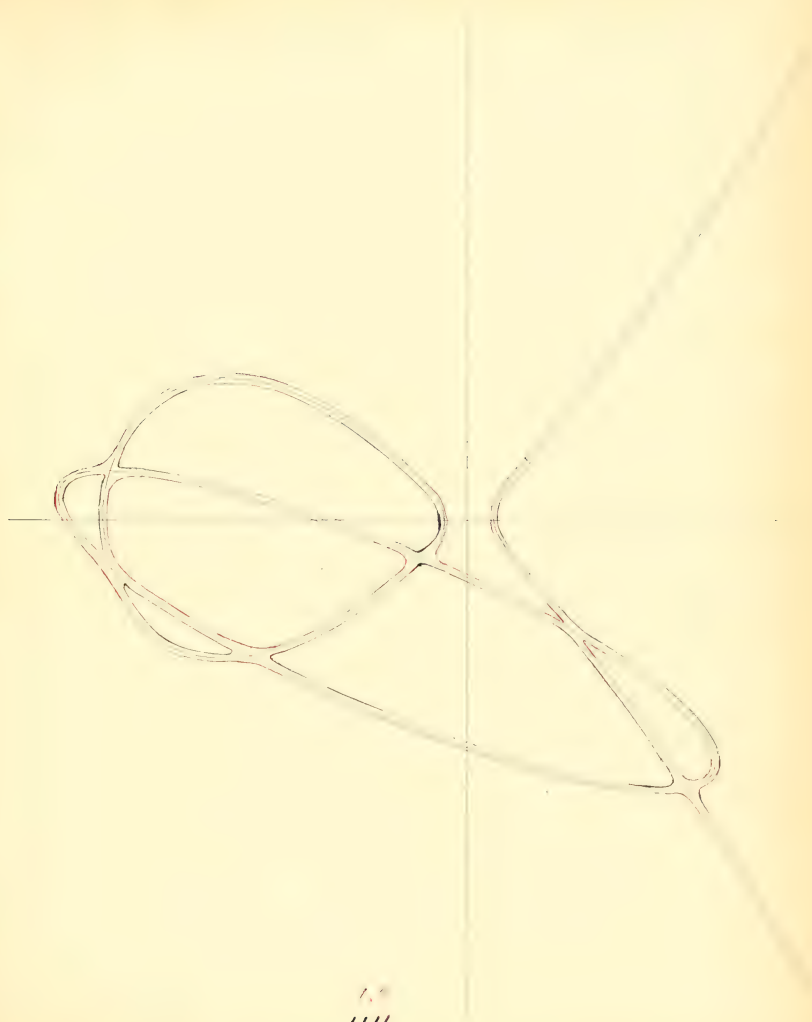
0,0.

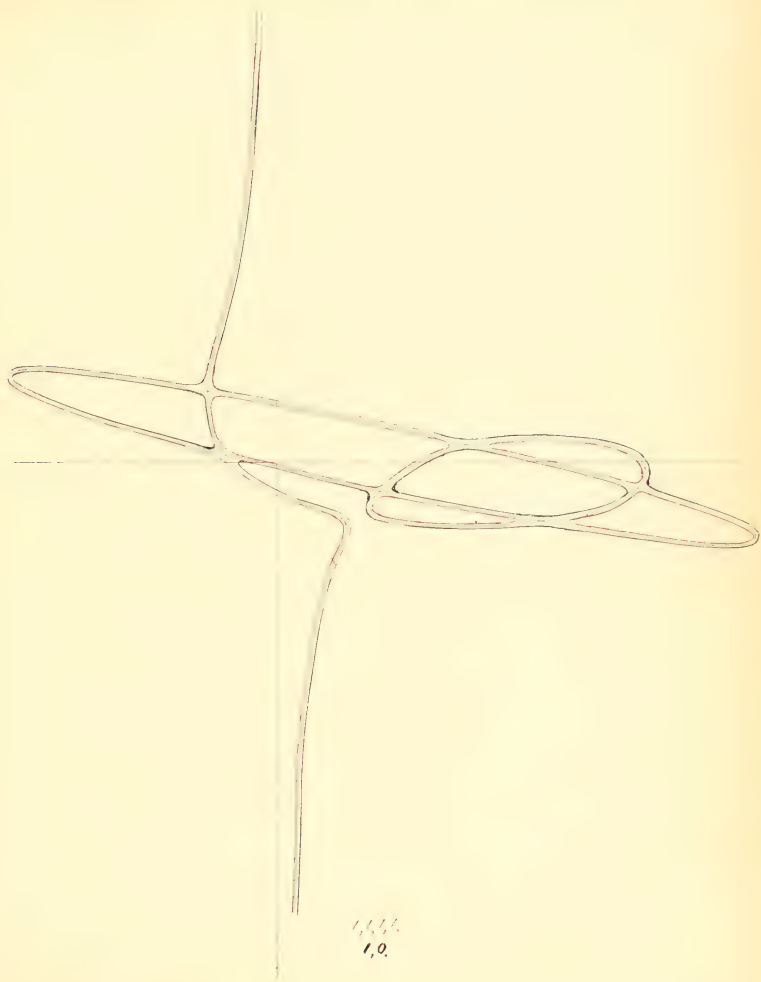


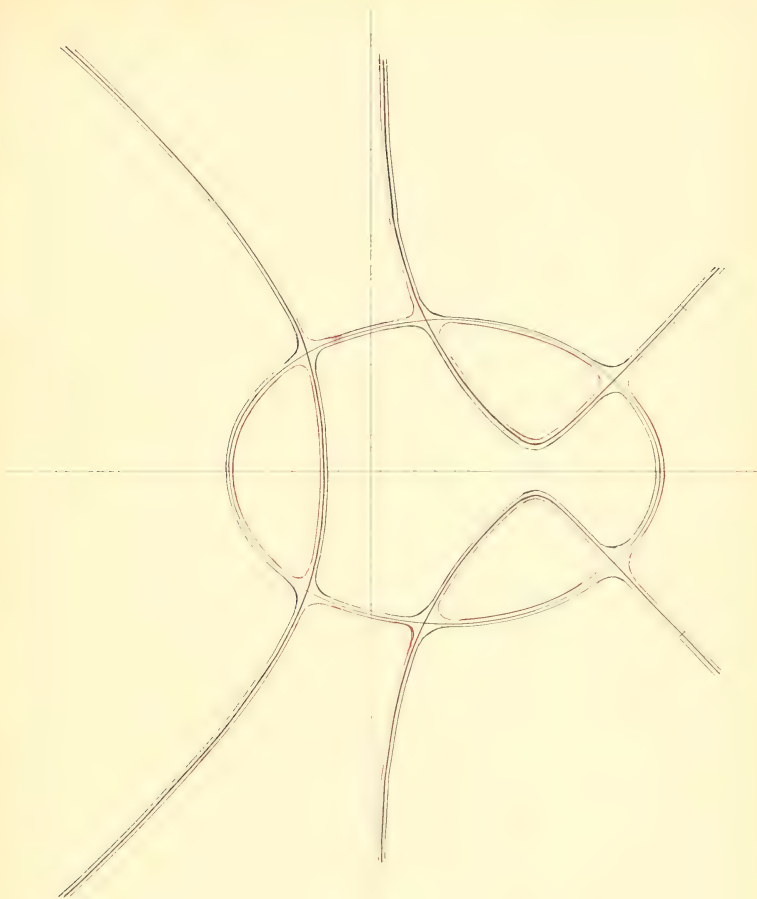
2, 11.
90.



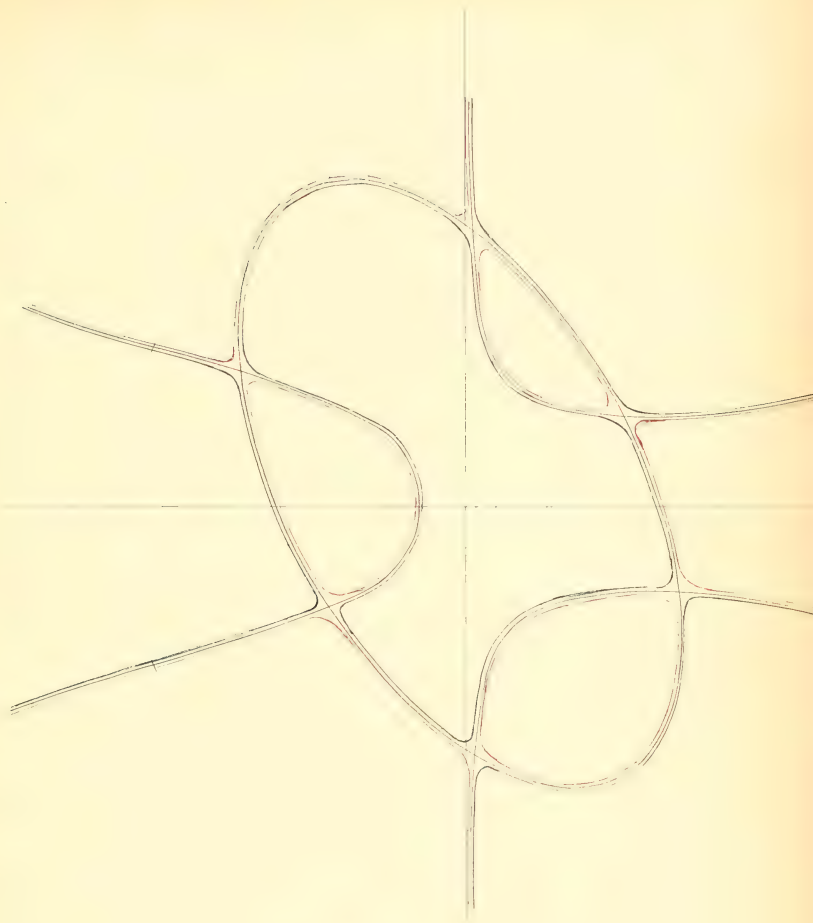
10
1111

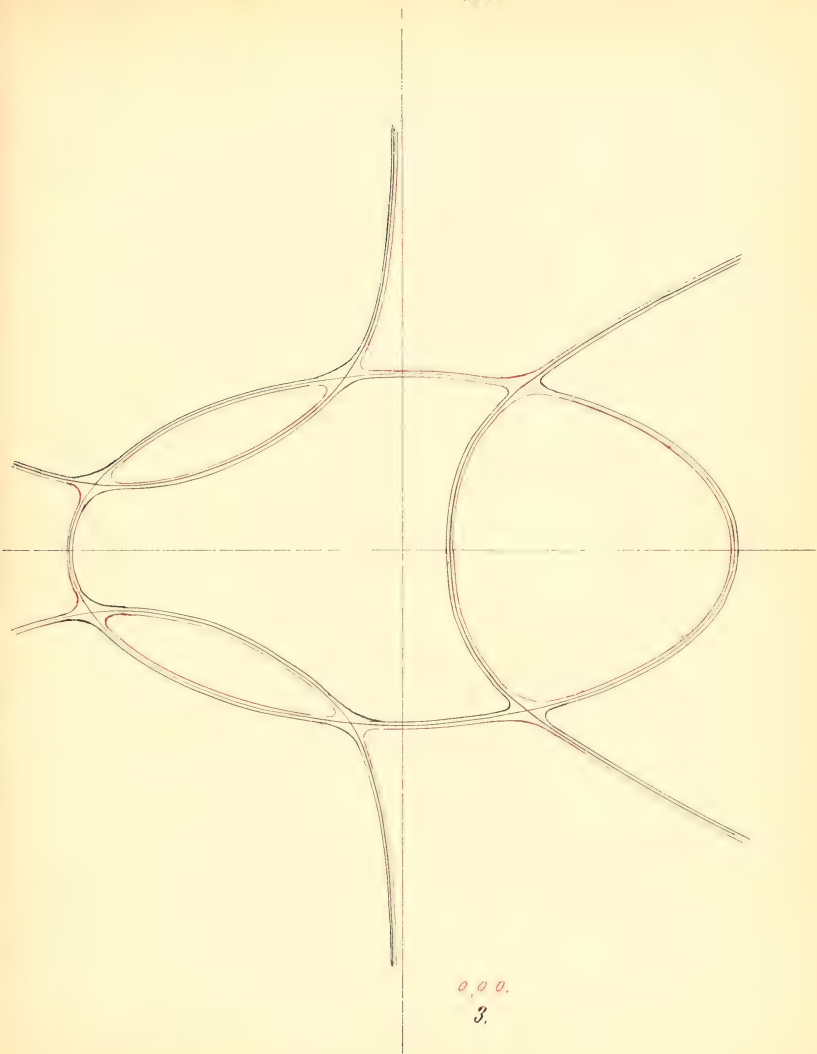


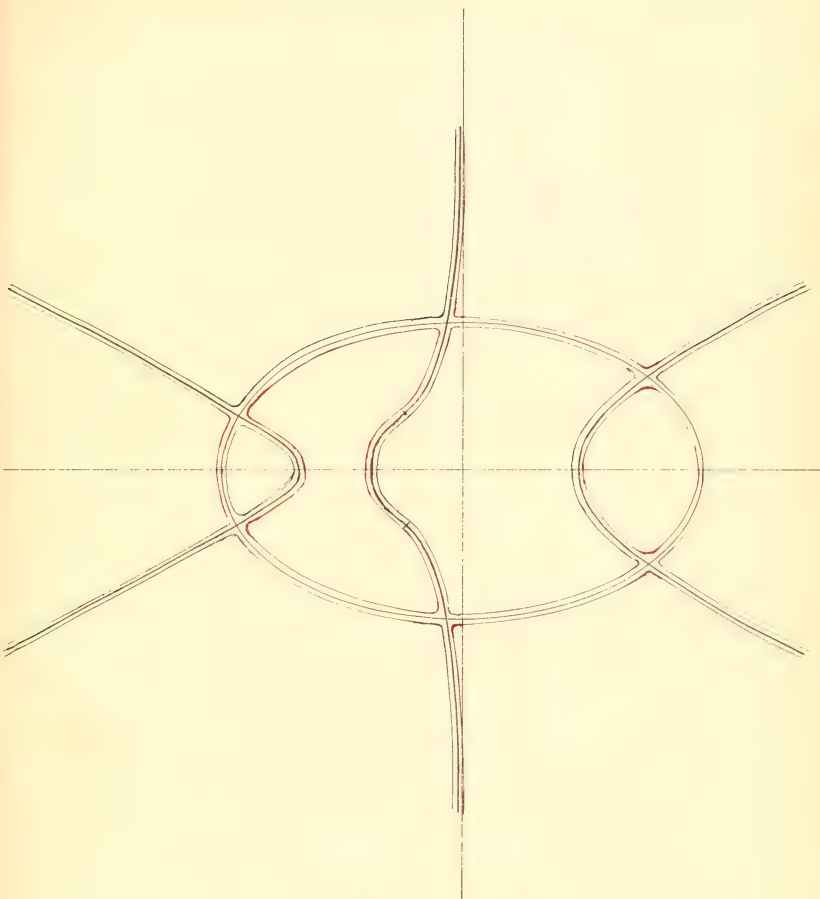




333

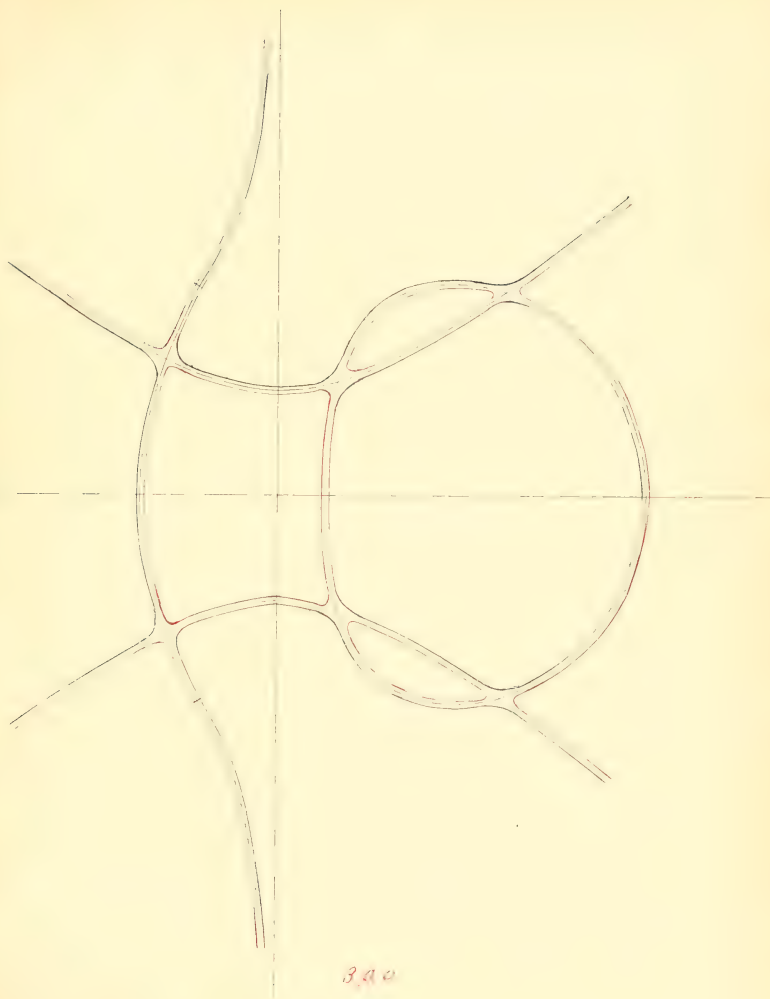




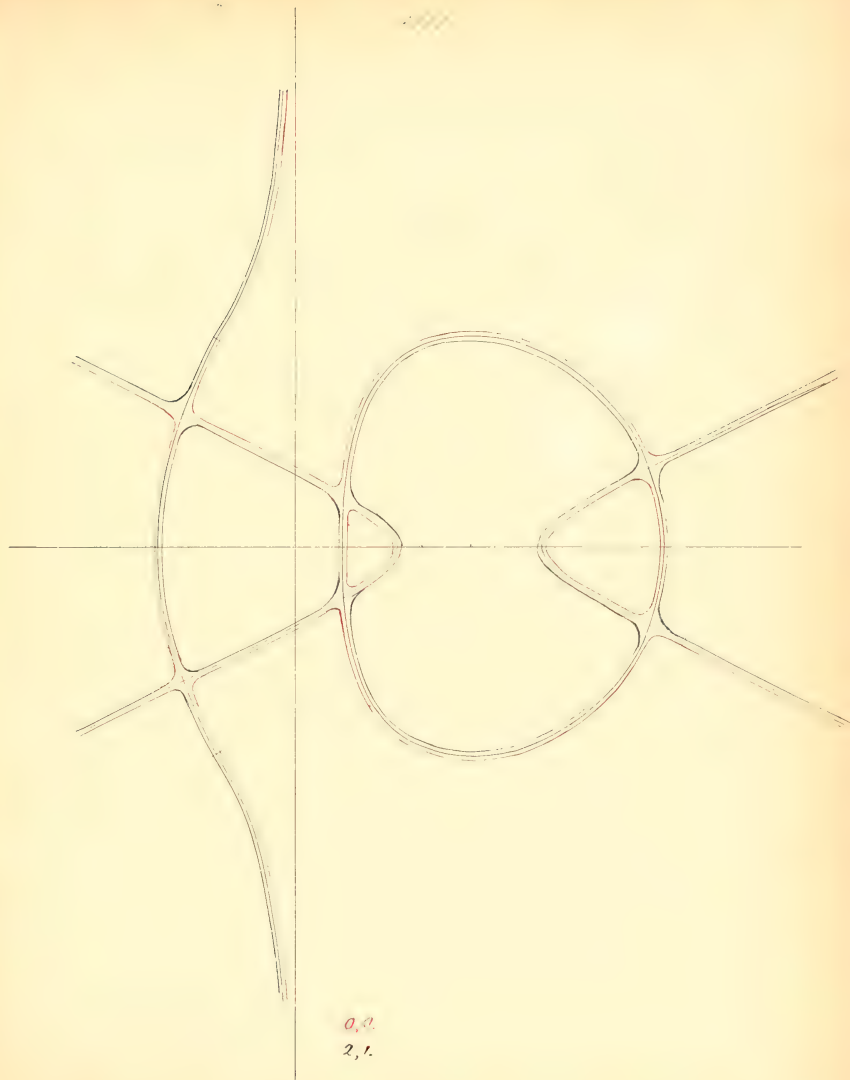


20

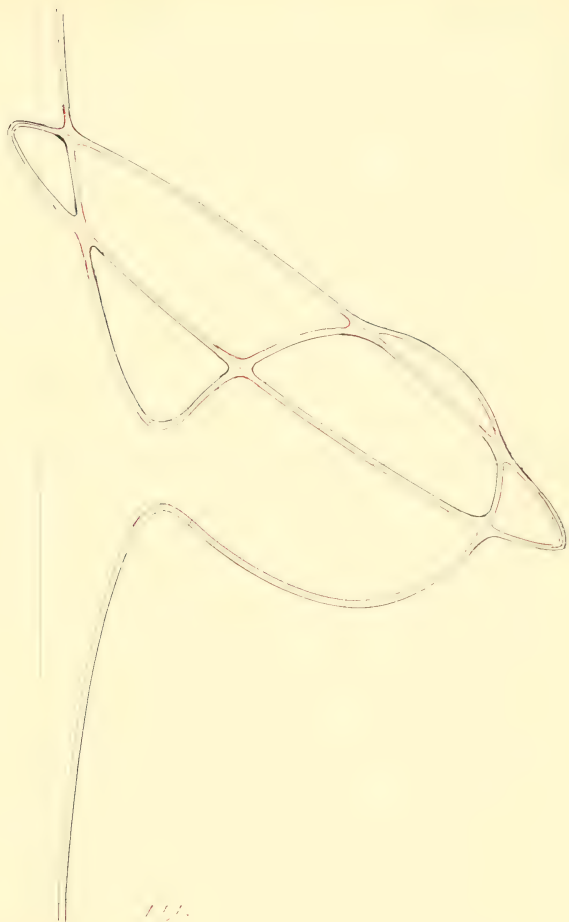
30



3.40
2.

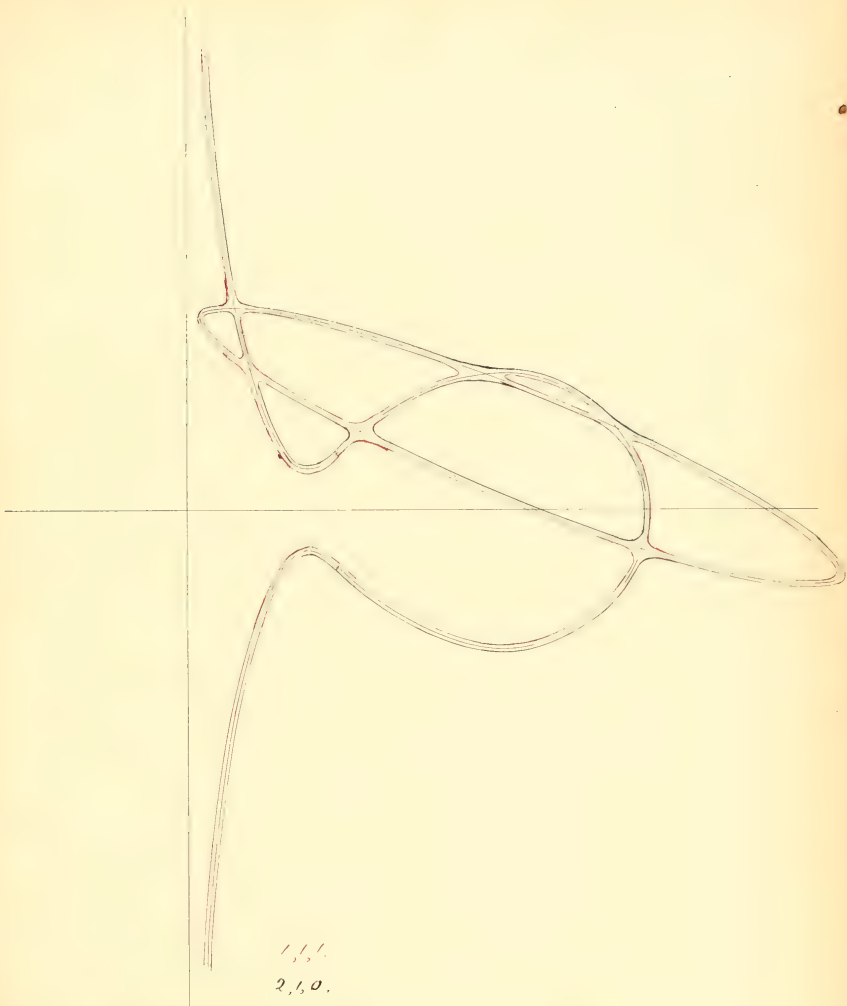


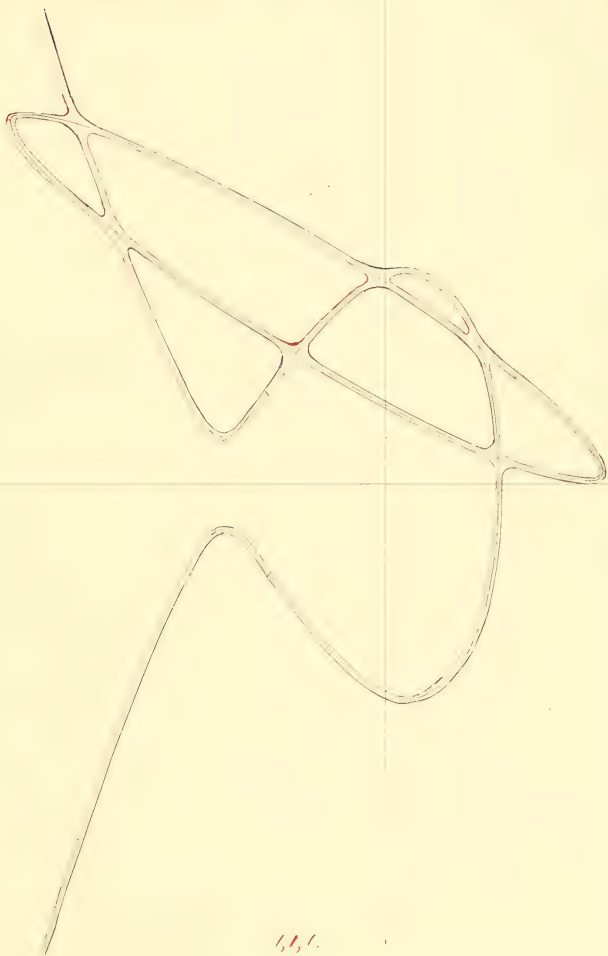
O. O.
2, 1.



111.

2,1,0.





1, 1, 1.
2, 1, 0.

